DOE/BETC/2215-1 Distribution Category UC-92a

METHODS FOR DETERMINING VENTED VOLUMES DURING GAS WELL BLOWOUTS

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Prepared for the U.S. Department of Energy
Under P.O. No. P-B-9-2215 and
Funded by USGS/OCS Oil and Gas Operations

Date Submitted—July 1980 Date Published—October 1980

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF ENERGY

FOREWORD

When hydrocarbons are lost from a well during a blowout, methods for estimating the lost volumes are often needed by both industry and government. This publication provides the currently accepted calculation methods for gas blowouts and proposes some methods which need further definition.

This work was funded by the Research and Development Program for Outer Continental Shelf Oil and Gas Operations of the U.S. Geological Survey in cooperation with Bartlesville Energy Technology Center (BETC) of the U.S. Department of Energy. BETC provided contracting, monitoring and technology transfer through its Drilling Technology Program.

A similar work effort is being performed by the same contractor to assess the technology for estimating liquid hydrocarbon volumes lost during blowouts.

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ABSTRACT

Several methods are presented for determining vented volumes during gas well blowouts. The methods described apply to gas production in which no liquids phase(s), hydrocarbon and/or water, are present in the gas. Each method is illustrated with a numerical example. Sensitivity analyses provide estimates of probable errors. The method of crossplotting formation and flow string resistances is the only one which does not require special measurements. It is therefore applicable to cratered wells and underwater blowouts. The report includes several suggestions for investigations which might lead to better methods.

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SECTION 1 INDUSTRY SURVEY

1.1 Introduction

A survey of several major oil companies, independents and companies which service the petroleum industry reveals no standard method for estimating amounts of gas lost during blowouts. Discussions during the survey made it apparent that, owing to the varied conditions of blowouts, there can not be a standard method. The methods reported in current use can be broadly categorized as:

- 1.2 Guesstimates
- 1.3 Engineering Calculations
- 1.4 Direct Measurements
- 1.5 Extrapolations

Each of these methods has its advantages and limitations. They are briefly described in this section and treated in detail in other sections of this report.

1.2 Guesstimates

The widest margin of error probably occurs with techniques based mainly on intuition or experience, assisted only by crude measurements with no associated calculations which are usually influenced consciously or unconsciously by parameters such as height of the flame, noise level, deflection of a sledge hammer handle placed in the gas flow stream, etc. These are classified as guesstimates. The purpose of guesstimates is usually to establish an order of magnitude and not to provide precise values for engineering or economic determinations. They are used primarily to size equipment to be used in bringing the well under control and are certainly subject to considerable error.

The technique, which is highly individualized and in some cases surprisingly accurate, depends mainly on the experience and background of the guesser. In times past when flaring was more prevalent and regulations more lax, many people developed a good intuitive feeling for blowout flow rates by comparison with past jets or flares of reasonably well known rates. However, the passing of time and the scarcity of intentional flaring has diminished this intuitive feeling substantially within the industry. Although it is conceivable that they exist, no calibration curves relating vented volume with such things as flare height, noise level, heat intensity or hammer handle deflection were uncovered in

the literature or during the industry survey.

Depending on circumstances, surface conditions, personal danger, and the ability to position measuring equipment into the flow stream, a guesstimate may be the only approach to obtain vented volumes. However, under certain conditions, more accurate estimates may be made. The details of some of these techniques outlined below are further discussed in other sections of this report.

1.3 Engineering Calculations

If certain data are available or can be reasonably estimated, fluid flow calculations can bracket the vented flow rates between maximum and minimum values. Of course, where more is known about the several parameters, particularly the more sensitive ones, the bracket range is reduced.

For the reservoir, the more important data include static reservoir pressure, productive stratum thickness, permeability, gas viscosity and reservoir temperature. For the flow string, the more important data include the geometry of the well bore flow path, e.g., through drill pipe or through the annulus, depth, gas specific gravity, reservoir temperature, and surface well head pressure. From these and other data it is possible to calculate separately the pressure losses in the formation (Section 7) and in the flow string (Section 8). A simultaneous consideration of these yields a value of the uncertainties in the several variables and the manner in which they enter into the calculations provides a measure of the uncertainty in the estimated flow rate.

In some cases, where there is an appreciable decline in reservoir pressure during the blowout, the material balance method can be used to estimate the volume of vented gas. The use and limitations of this method are presented in Section 2.

1.4 Direct Measurement

The most accurate technique of estimating vented gas is that of making measurements of the gas flow rate during the blowout. There are however, several obvious limitations. First, it is necessary to have the proper surface facilities to allow measurements to be made, i.e., diverter line and pressure taps; and a reasonably safe condition must exist to allow personnel to make the measurements. In many cases the choke lines, diverter lines and other surface facilities are destroyed

or rendered unusable by the blowout or a subsequent fire and measurements are impossible. In many of the remaining cases, it is just too dangerous to approach the well to make the necessary measurements.

In the Arkoma Basin, where wells are commonly drilled with air, many prolific gas zones are drilled into with no mud in the hole thereby creating a condition of uncontrolled blowout for some period until the well is filled with mud. It is standard practice there to gauge the gas being vented by placing a Pitot tube in the flow stream for higher flow rate wells and by using a portable orifice tester for the lower rate wells. A discussion of the pitot tube and other direct measurement techniques is included in Sections 3 and 4.

1.5 Extrapolations

In some cases, the blowout is partially contained and emergency gas sales are made while steps are taken to bring the well completely under control. It usually takes considerable time to accomplish this during which a reasonable decline curve may be established. This decline curve may be extrapolated back to the initial time of the blowout to approximate initial flow rate. The amount of gas lost is then mathematically estimated by formulas such as:

$$Q = \frac{q_i - q_t}{a} \tag{1.1}$$

where:

Q = gas volume produced between qi and qt, SCF

q_i = initial gas flow rate, SCF/day
q_t = gas flow rate at time t, SCF/day

 $a = decline factor, t^{-1}, days^{-1}$

The extrapolation method will be discussed in more detail in Section 5 and followed by a discussion of limitations and error ranges.

SECTION 2 MATERIAL BALANCE METHODS

2.1 Introduction

For gas blowouts in which there is an appreciable drop in reservoir pressure during the blowout, the material balance method can in some instances be used to estimate the volume of vented gas. The pressure drop during the blowout should be a minimum of about five per cent of the initial pressure. Also, use of the material balance method is generally, but not exclusively, limited to volumetric gas reservoirs, i.e., those without water drive.

The principle underlying the material balance method for gas reservoirs is quite simple. For ideal gas behavior and reservoirs with no pressure support mechanizms, e.g., water influx, the fraction of the reservoir gas produced and/or lost during a blowout is equal to the fractional loss in reservoir pressure. In its application, however, there are a number of complex aspects which should be carefully considered. Where the gas in place at start of blowout is determined by the volumetric method, consideration should be given to the accuracy of the several data required.

2.2 Theory and Formulas

Application of the material balance method to determine vented gas requires first a determination of the reservoir gas in place at the start of blowout. Where there is sufficient pressure production history for the reservoir, the material balance method may be used. The following formula, Eq. (1.30) of Ref. 2.1 is a form of the material balance for gas reservoirs which have no water influx and from which no formation water is produced.

$$\frac{p_{sc}g_{p}}{T_{sc}} = \frac{p_{i}V}{z_{i}T_{r}} - \frac{p_{f}V}{z_{f}T_{r}}$$
(2.1)

in which

p = standard cubic feet of gas produced during reservoir pressure drop (p_i-p_f).

p_i,p_f = initial and final average reservoir pressures, psia.

T_r = reservoir temperature, degrees Rankine. $z_i, z_f = gas deviation factors at temperature <math>T_r$ and pressures pi and pf, dimensionless. = reservoir hydrocarbon pore volume HCPV, cubic feet.

The hydrocarbon pore volume can also be determined by the volumetric method where the necessary data are available. The following formula applies.

$$V = 43,560 \times V_b \times \phi \times (1-S_w)$$
 (2.2)

where V = hydrocarbon pore volume, cubic feet

V_b = reservoir bulk volume, acre-feet.

 ϕ = average reservoir porosity, fraction of pore volume.

 S_{W} = average connate water saturation, fraction of pore volume.

Once the hydrocarbon pore volume has been obtained by either method, the gas in place at any pressure can be found using the following formula:

$$G = V \times \frac{p \times T_{SC}}{z \times T_{r} \times p_{SC}}$$
 (2.3)

= standard cubic feet, SCF of gas in where G the reservoir at pressure p = hydrocarbon pore volume, cubic feet = average reservoir pressure, psia = reservoir temperature, degrees Rankine = gas deviation factor at p and $extsf{T}_{r}$. Tsc, psc = standard temperature and pressure, degrees Rankine and psia.

Finally, then, the vented gas volume is calculated as the difference between the gas in place $G_{\hat{\mathbf{1}}}$ at start of blowout when reservoir pressure was p_i , and the gas in place f at end of blowout when pressure is f, less any produced gas f by other wells during the blowout,

$$G_p(blowout) = G_i - G_f - G_p$$
 (2.4)

Example Using the Material Balance Method

To illustrate the use of the material balance method, example 2.1 considers a gas reservoir with no water drive in which the discovery well Smith No. 1 had been producing long enough prior to the blowout in Smith No. 2 so that the material balance method could

be used to determine the reservoir's hydrocarbon pore volume, using Eq. (2.1). Data were also available to make an independent determination of the hydrocarbon pore volume using Eq. (2.2). Using both of these determinations, the volumes of vented gas during the 61 day blowout in Smith No. 2 are calculated, making allowance for the continued production from Smith No. 1 during the blowout.

Example 2.1

Data

9,000 psiaInitial reservoir pressure, measured
in Smith No. 1 producing well 8,000 psiaReservoir pressure at start of blow- out, based on pressure history of Smith No. 1
7,400 psiaReservoir pressure at end of blowout,
240°F700°R. reservoir temperature
1.29 @ 9,000 psia
1.23 @ 8,000 psiaGas deviation factors at 240°F 1.19 @ 7,400 psia
14.7 psia & 60°FStandard Conditions used
12x109 SCFSmith No. 1 production to start of blowout
61 daysDuration of blowout
720x10° SCFSmith No. 1 production during blow-
ZeroSmith No. 1 formation water production
ZeroEstimated reservoir water influx
76,700 acre-feetBulk reservoir volume, isonach man
25 per centAverage porosity
30 per centAverage connate water
13,000 feetReservoir depth 12.1 lb/galMud weight in Smith No. 2 at time
of blowout

Calculations

A-1 Hydrocarbon pore volume (HCPV) calculated by material balance using Smith No. 1 data, using Eq. (2.1):

$$\frac{14.7 \times 12 \times 10^9}{520} = \frac{9,000 \text{ V}_{\text{HCPV}}}{1.29 \times 700} - \frac{8,000 \text{ V}_{\text{HCPV}}}{1.23 \times 700}$$

 $V_{HCPV} = 0.503 \times 10^{9} \text{ft}^3$

A-2 Gas in place at start of blowout (t=0). Using Eq. (2.3):

 $G(t=0) = 0.503 \times 10^{9} \times \frac{8,000 \times 520}{1.23 \times 700 \times 14.7}$ $= 165.3 \times 10^{9} SCF$

A-3 Gas in place at end of blowout (t=61 days) Using Eq. (2.3):

 $G(t=61) = 0.503 \times 10^{9} \times \frac{7,400 \times 520}{1.19 \times 700 \times 14.7}$ $= 158.1 \times 10^{9} SCF$

- A-4 Vented blowout gas from Smith No. 2 using Eq. (2.4): $G_{p}(blowout) = G(t=0) G(t=61) G_{p}(Smith No. 1)$ $= 165.3x10^{9} 158.1x10^{9} 0.720x10^{9}$ $= 6.48x10^{9}SCF$
- A-5 Average Smith No. 2 blowout rate

$$q_{sc} = \frac{6.48 \times 10^{9} SCF}{61 \text{ days}} = \frac{106 \text{ MMSCF/D}}{100 \text{ MMSCF/D}}$$

B-1 HCPV by Volumetric Method, using Eq. (2.2):

 $V_{HCPV} = 43,560xA(ac-ft)x\phi x(1-S_w)$ = 43,560x76,700x0.25x(1-0.30) $= 0.584x10^9 ft$

B-2 Gas in place at start of blowout (t=0) Using Eq. (2.3):

 $G(t=0) = 0.584 \times 10^{9} \times \frac{8,000 \times 520}{1.23 \times 700 \times 14.7}$ $= 191.9 \times 10^{9} SCF$

7

B-3 Gas in place at end of blowout (t=61 days) Using Eq. (2.3):

$$G(t=61) = 0.584 \times 10^{9} \times \frac{7,400 \times 520}{1.19 \times 700 \times 14.7}$$
$$= 183.6 \times 10^{9} SCF$$

B-4 Vented blowout gas from Smith No. 2

$$G_p(blowout) = G(t=0) - G(t=61) - G_p(Smith No. 1)$$

= $191.9x10^9 - 183.6x10^9 - 0.720x10^9$
= $7.58x10^9SCF$

B-5 Average Smith No. 2 blowout rate

$$q_{sc} = \frac{7.58 \times 10^9}{61 \text{ days}} = \frac{124 \text{ MMSCF/D}}{}$$

C-1 Reservoir pressure at start of blowout calculated from Smith No. 2 mud weight

p = 0.052(psi/ft/ppg)xW(ppg)xD(feet)

= 0.052x12.1x13,000

= 8180 psia

2.4 Critique of the Example and the Method

If the pressure production data from Smith No. 1 had been inadequate for using a material balance, or if Smith No. 2 had been the discovery and blowout well, the material balance method could not have been used to determine the hydrocarbon pore volume. It could only be determined if adequate data for the volumetric method, Eq. (2.2), were available. In the absence of pressure data from Smith No. 1 and/or if Smith No. 2 had been the discovery well, reservoir pressure at start of blowout could only be inferred from the mud weight (density) and depth as in Part C-1 of Example 2.1. A pressure at the end of the blowout would also be needed.

Pressures obtained from mud weight and depth are subject to considerable error. The reservoir pressure may be higher or lower than that calculated from the mud weight and depth. If the blowout occurs during

drilling, then the reservoir pressure is greater than the sum of the hydrostatic mud column pressure and the annular friction loss. Where blowouts occur during tripping operations, the reservoir pressure is less than the hydrostatic pressure of the mud column, owing to a reduction of well pressure below the bit by the swabbing action as the drill string is hoisted. Where the blowout is caused by failure to keep the hole full of mud, the reservoir pressure is lower than that calculated from mud weight and depth. In many blowouts, good values of reservoir pressures are available when the blowout preventers are closed, i.e., the sum of the surface pressure gauge reading and the pressure of the hydrostatic column of mud in the drill pipe.

The main uncertainty in determining the hydrocarbon pore volume by the material balance method, Eq. (2.1), derives from uncertainties in the pressures. From Eq. (2.1) it is seen that the hydrocarbon pore volume is inversely proportional to the difference $(p_i/z_i-p_f/z_f)$. For the example this difference is

$$\frac{9000}{1.29} - \frac{8000}{1.23} = 6976 - 6504 = 472$$

Suppose owing to one of several causes, the pressure at start of blowout was really 8100 psia. Then

$$\frac{9000}{1.29} - \frac{8100}{1.23} = 6976 - 6585 = 391$$

and the resultant value of the hydrocarbon pore volume using 8100 would be 0.607x10⁹ft³, or 17 per cent larger than the value calculated using 8000 psia. As the gas deviation factor at 8100 is a little larger than 1.23, the error would be a little bit larger than 17 per cent. A major cause for pressure errors is that the pressure measured in wells may not be the true average pressure of the reservoir, owing to differential delpetion of areas of the reservoir.

Error analysis for the volumetric estimate of the hydrocarbon pore volume is straightforward. As the ranges of porosity and connate water are somewhat limited, the major source of error arises from the estimate of the bulk reservoir volume. Where the reservoir thickness is reasonably uniform, the bulk volume estimate is essentially an estimate of the productive area. In other cases the bulk volume is determined from isopach maps whose validity depends upon the number of control wells available and geological interpretation.

Assuming the estimate of bulk reservoir volume contains the major uncertainty, the per cent error in the hydrocarbon pore volume is that of the uncertainty in the estimate of bulk reservoir volume.

In the event Eq. (2.1) is used where there is water influx, calculated hydrocarbon pore volumes will be larger than the actual, and so will calculated volumes of gas in place. Thus, the calculated volumes of blowout gas will be larger than actual. Use of Eq. (2.1) therefore sets a maximum value to the vented gas volumes. Reference 2.2 contains a fuller discussion of the use of the volumetric and material balance methods on gas reservoirs.

SECTION 3 FLOW RATE MEASUREMENTS WITH PITOT TUBES

3.1 Introduction

The Pitot tube can be used to measure gas flow rates from wells under open flow conditions (Refs. 3.1 and 3.2). It is used to sense the difference between the dynamic and static pressures in a moving gas stream. This pressure differential is equal to the velocity head and is measured by a suitable device. The velocity is then determined and used to evaluate gas flow rates. Although less sophisticated than other gas flow measurement devices, it is the best suited device for gas flow measurements during gas well blowouts, except where a diverter or bleed line has been installed. As the Pitot tube has been widely and successfully employed to obtain "Back-Pressure" test data on gas wells, many operators are familiar with its use.

3.2 Description of the Pitot Tube

A sketch of the simple pitot tube, invented by H. Pitot, is shown in Fig. 3.1. This is sometimes called an impact tube or stagnation tube. The Pitot tube in principle is made by bending one leg of a manometer so that the opening is pointing exactly against the direction of gas flow. If one end of the manometer is left open to the atmosphere, the instrument indicates dynamic head, which is the sum of the static pressure and the pressure exerted by the velocity of the gas. The static pressure is measured by tapping the side of the line and measuring the pressure perpendicular to the line of flow.

A sketch of a combined Pitot and static tube device is also shown in Fig. 3.1. By this arrangement the static head is automatically subtracted from the dynamic head so that the manometer reading is a measure of the velocity head.

In open flow measurements the Pitot tube is located at the open end of the casing as shown also in Fig. 3.1. Where the other end of the manometer is left open to the atmosphere, the manometer reading is a measure of the velocity head. For small velocity heads the manometer liquid is water and for larger heads, mercury. For heads above 20 psi, Bourdon or dead weight gauges are used.

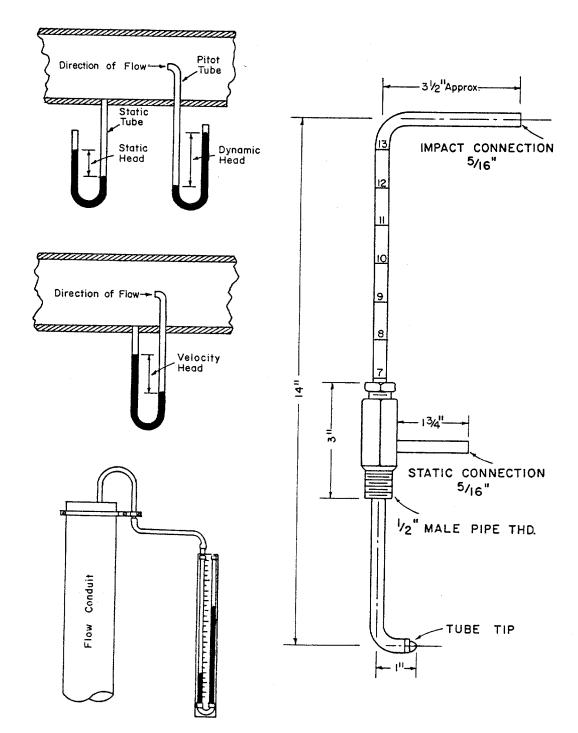


Fig. 3.1 Pitot tubes: Simple Pitot and static tubes (upper); combined Pitot and static tubes (middle); and open flow Pitot tube (lower)

Fig. 3.2 Drawing of a commercially available Pitot tube (Ref. 3.3). (Courtesy Chandler Engineering Company.)

Figure 3.2 is a drawing of a Pitot tube which is available commercially (Ref. 3.3). It may be used for either open or closed flow. For high velocities and large diameter gas streams the tube shown would need to be strengthened and provided with a substantial support to position it in the stream.

3.3 Pitot Tube Formula

For all velocities between zero and sonic velocity it can be reasonably assumed that the part of the main stream which is stopped by the impact tube is stopped isentropically. Under these conditions it has been shown (Ref. 3.1) that the stream velocity at the impact tube is given by:

$$v = 58.58 E \left\{ \frac{n}{n-1} \frac{T}{G} \left[\left(\frac{p_i}{p_a} \right)^{\frac{n-1}{n}} - 1 \right] \right\}^{0.5}$$
 (3.1)

where

v = velocity at Pitot tube, ft/sec

n = ratio of specific heats of the gas

p; = impact pressure indicated by the tube, psia

p = static pressure which is atmospheric pressure in open subsonic flow, psia

T = flowing temperature, OR

G = gas gravity, (air=1)

E = efficiency factor which is the ratio between theoretical and actual velocities.

3.4 Flow Rate Determination

The velocity of gas through a circular pipe or annuli is not uniformly distributed (Ref. 3.4). Consequently, to determine the quantity of gas flowing, an average value for the gas velocity must be obtained. For approximate work involving circular flow cross section, the pitot tube can be located at the center of the pipe where the maximum velocity exists. The ratio of the average velocity and the maximum velocity may be assumed to be 0.862 (Ref. 3.5). The Pitot tube can also be placed at a point in the circular pipe where the actual velocity is equal to the average velocity of the entire cross section. This point is usually assumed to be on the circumference of a circle whose radius is 74 per cent of the radius of the pipe and concentric with the pipe (Ref. 3.6).

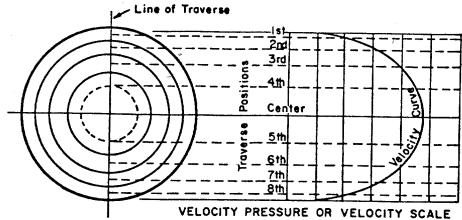


Fig. 3.3. Traverse positions for four equal areas.

Table I

Distances in	Per	Cent	from	Insid	e Sur	face	to Po	int o	f Tra	verse
Number of Equal Areas	1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th	7th	8th	9th	<u>10th</u>
1	14.6	85.4								
2	6.7	25.0	75.0	93.3						
3	4.5	14.7	29.6	70.4	85.3	95.5				
4	3.4	10.6	19.5	32.3	67.7	80.5	89.4	96.6		
5	2.6	8.3	14.7	22.8	34,•2	65.8	77.2	85.3	91.7	97.4

For more accurate work it is better to make a traverse of the pipe. A traverse is the only recommended method in annular flow as the position of maximum velocity or the mean velocity is hard to predict. a traverse, the pipe is first divided into a number of equal areas, a circle at the center and annular rings around it, as illustrated by Fig. 3.3. Mean diameters are determined for the annular rings, and where these cut the line of traverse, points are determined in which positions the Pitot tube is placed and a reading The two points in the inner circle are located where the circumference of the circle, having one-half the area of inner circle, cuts the line of traverse. Table I gives the distances in per cent from the inside surface of the pipe to the various positions of the traverse.

The velocity at each reading position is calculated using Eq. (3.1). The arithmetic mean of these readings is the average velocity.

In case the above method of running a traverse is impractical or if the flow is annular, several readings have to be taken on a diameter. The velocity at each position is calculated and a velocity distribution plot is constructed. The average velocity is then determined graphically.

Where velocities are varying, several readings should be taken over a period of time to obtain average values. As the Pitot tube reading is correct only when the tube is exactly parallel to the current of flow (Ref. 3.4), it may be necessary to rotate the tube with respect to the pipe axis until a maximum reading is obtained.

The quantity q of gas flowing through a duct is obtained as a product of the average velocity $^{\text{V}}{}_{\text{a}}$ and the duct area A. For a circular duct with inside diameter D:

$$q = 0.471 D^2 v_a \frac{p T_{sc}}{p_{sc} T}$$
 (3.2)

where:

q = flow rate, MSCF/D

D = inside diameter, inches

 v_a = average velocity, ft/sec

p = pressure of flowing gas, psia

T = temperature of flowing gas, OR

psc = standard pressure, psia

T_{sc} = standard temperature, OR

3.5 Illustrative Example with Error Analysis

The following example illustrates the use of Pitot tube measurements to calculate the gas flow rate where gas is blowing out to the atmosphere through 10-3/4 inch casing. Following the example, error analysis is applied to evaluate the precision of the measurement.

Example 3.1

Data:

Casing diameter (I.D.)	.9.85 in
Cas enecific gravity (Air=1)	0.665
Flowing temperature	85°F
Barometric pressure	.65 psia

Pitot tube measurements:

No.	% Diameter (Table I)	Inches From Inner Wall	Readings psig
1	4.5	0.44	3.0
2	14.7	1.45	6.0
3	29.6	2.92	8.0
4	70.4	6.93	9.0
5	85.3	8.40	6.0
6	95.5	9.41	2.0

Solution

For n=1.28, n/(n-1)=1.28/(1.28-1)=4.57 and (n-1)/n=0.219. Assuming E=1.00, for a Pitot reading of 3.0 psig, by Eq. (3.1) the velocity is

$$v = 58.58 \times 1.00 \{4.57 \times \frac{545}{0.665} [(\frac{3.0}{14.65})^{0.219} - 1]\}^{0.5}$$

v = 734 ft/sec

For $^{p}i=6.0$, 8.0, 9.0, 6.0 and 2.0, the respective velocities are 1002, 1137, 1195, 1002, and 606 ft/sec. The average velocity is therefore,

$$v_a = \frac{734+1002+1137+1195+1002+606}{6}$$

 $v_a = 946 \text{ ft/sec}$

Now using Eq. (3.2) to find the flow rate:

$$q = 0.471x9.85^2x9.46 \times \frac{14.65}{14.70} \times \frac{520}{545}$$

q = 41,000 MSCF/D

In Table II maximum probable errors are assigned to the parameters of Eqs. (3.1) and (3.2) for Example 3.1. The probable error introduced into the flow rate by each of these was calculated as shown in the last column.

The maximum probable error in the flow rate resulting from the worst combination of the individual errors assigned to the parameters is -28% or +11%. The calculated flowrate for Example 3.1 is 41,000 MSCF/D bracketed between the extremes of 30,000 and 45,000 MSCF/D.

Table II

Parameter	Probable Error in Parameter	Probable Error In Flow Rate
E	-10%	-10%
n	<u>+</u> 10%	<u>+</u> 3%
G	<u>+</u> 10%	 5%
T	<u>+</u> 50%	+ 4%
р	<u>+</u> 10%	<u>+</u> 10%

3.6 Limitation of the Pitot Tube Application

The Pitot tube application is limited to subsonic velocity. If the flow is sonic the static pressure is no longer atmospheric. The value of the static pressure is then unavailable unless the side of the pipe is tapped which is a remote possibility.

The sonic velocity v_s is expressed in Ref. 3.5 by:

$$v_s = 41.44 \left[\frac{nzT}{G}\right]^{0.5} \text{ ft/sec}$$
 (3.3)

where z is the gas deviation factor. Substituting in Eq. (3.2)

$$q_s = 19.52 \frac{D^2 p_{atm}^T sc}{p_{sc}^T} \left[\frac{nzT}{G}\right]^{0.5} MSCF/day \qquad (3.4)$$

where $^{\rm q}{}_{\rm S}$ is the maximum flow rate which could be accurately determined by the Pitot tube.

For the following average flow conditions and gas properties:

$$p_{atm} = 14.7 \text{ psia}$$
 $T_{sc} = 60^{\circ}\text{F}$ $n = 1.28 \text{ z} = 1.00$
 $p_{sc} = 14.7 \text{ psia}$ $T_{sc} = 60^{\circ}\text{F}$ $G_{sc} = 0.65$

Equation (3.4) becomes:

$$q_{s} = 625D^{2}$$
 (3.5)

Equation (3.5) is shown as a plot in Fig. 3.4. It indicates that where gas is vented to the atmosphere through 10 inch diameter casing, as in Example 3.1,

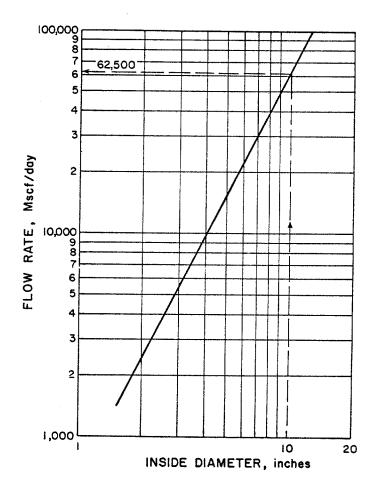


Fig. 3.4. Limits of flow rate for using Pitot tubes.

sonic velocity is reached at a flow rate of 62,500 MMSCF/D. As this is far above the 41,000 MSCF/D calculated in Example 3.1, the use of the Pitot formulas are valid.

SECTION 4 MEASUREMENTS IN BLEED LINES

4.1 Introduction

Figures 4.1-4.3 are diagrams of typical choke manifold assemblies recommended by the American Petroleum Institute, Ref. 4.1, for various working pressures. In addition to two or three vent lines through which flow is controlled by manual and/or remotely operated adjustable chokes, these systems contain bleed lines through which well fluids may be allowed to flow unrestricted to the atmosphere.

Bleed lines are usually straight runs of horizontal pipe, fifty to one hundred feet long and of a diameter at least that of the choke lines. The upstream end of the bleed line contains one or two plug or gate valves and a pressure gauge. The downstream end is open to the atmosphere. Where wells are vented or blowing out through bleed lines, it is possible to calculate the flow rate from pressure gauge readings and the length and diameter of the bleed line. This method of calculating flow rate can also be applied to diverter or blooie lines where the lines are equipped with pressure gauges.

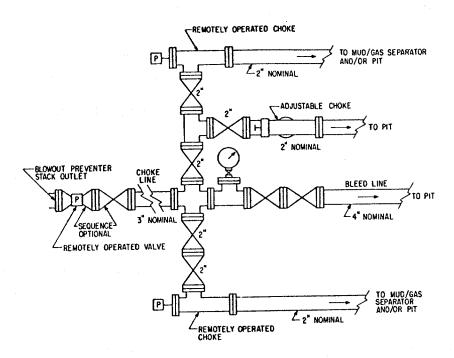


Fig.4.1.Typical choke manifold assembly for 10,000 and 15,000 psi rated working pressure service. Courtesy American Petroleum Institute, Ref. 4.1.

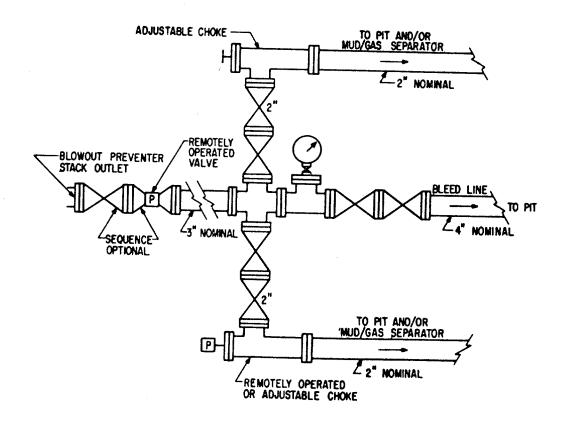


Fig.. 4.2. Typical choke manifold assembly for 5000 psi rated working pressure service. Courtesy American Pet. Institute, Ref. 4.1.

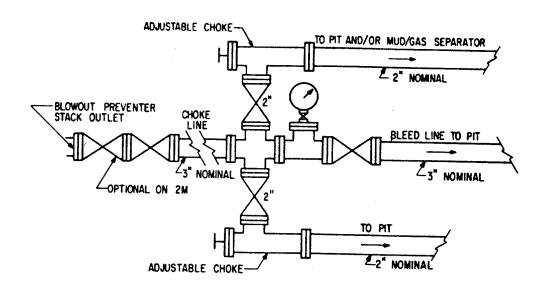


Fig.4.3. Typical choke manifold assembly for 2000 and 3000 psi rated working pressure service. Courtesy American Petroleum Institute, Ref. 4.1.

4.2 Bleed Line FLow Calculations

In compressible fluid flow in pipe lines of uniform cross section, the effect of friction is to increase the velocity and to decrease the pressure of the stream. If the pressure drop is sufficiently high, which is the case in well blowouts through small diameter pipes, the exit velocity reaches sonic velocity. Although the line discharges to atmospheric pressure, the outlet pressure is significantly higher.

The sonic velocity $\mathbf{v}_{_{\mathbf{S}}}$ at the pipe outlet is expressed in Ref. 4.2 as:

$$v_{s} = \left[\frac{k z_{o} R T_{o}}{W}\right]^{0.5}$$
 (4.1)

where

k = ratio of the specific heats

R = universal gas constant

W = gas molecular weight

 z_0 = gas compressibility factor at outlet temperature T_0 and pressure p_0

Expressing W in terms of gas specific gravity G, the absolute temperature T_0 in 0R , and replacing R by its numerical value, Eq.(4.1) yields for the velocity in feet per second:

$$v_{s} = 41.44 \left[\frac{k z_{o} T_{o}}{G} \right]^{0.5}$$
 (4.2)

Hence the flow rate $\mathbf{q}_{_{\text{O}}}$ in MCF/D at outlet pressure and temperature

$$q_{o} = 19.53 D^{2} \left[\frac{k z_{o} T_{o}^{0.5}}{G} \right]$$
 (4.3)

where D is the line inside diameter in inches.

The flow rate \mathbf{q}_{O} can also be expressed using the Clinedinst equation, Ref. 4.3, as:

$$q_o = 7.965 \frac{p_c D^5 T_o}{p_o GLf} (\int_0^p \frac{p_r}{z} dp_r - \int_0^p \frac{p_r}{z} dp_r)$$
 (4.4)

where

 P_O = outlet pressure, psia

p_C = pseudocritical pressure, psia
f = friction factor

L = pipe length, ft

P_i = inlet pressure, psia, recorded by the gauge.

The integral function

$$\begin{array}{ccc}
 & p_r & p_r \\
 & z & dp_r
\end{array}$$

has been evaluated by Nisle and Poettmann, Ref. 4.4, and are given in Table 4.1.

Equations (4.3) and (4.4) contain two unknown parameters q and po. The other parameters can be measured or estimated. The pipe inside diameter D and pipe roughness e are usually known. Complete turbulence can be assumed and the friction factor f obtained from Fig. 4.4, Ref. 4.5. If the temperature T_{O} of the exiting gas stream can not be measured it must be estimated. The gas gravity G is likewise estimated or measured if a gas sample has been obtained.

The equivalent length of valves, if present, is added to the axial length of the line before substituting for L in Eq. (4.4). The valves usually used are full bore gate or plug valves. The friction losses across these valves when fully open are small and can be predicted with fair accuracy. The equivalent lengths of valves are available in the literature, e.g., Ref. 4.6, or from the manufacturer.

Equations (4.3) and (4.4) are used to construct a plot of flow rate versus inlet pressure, measured by the gauge, using a range of assumed values of outlet pressure Po which are unmeasured. Values of G and $^{1}\mathrm{O}$ in Eq. (4.3) must be estimated or measured. From these and the assumed values of P_{O} the gas deviation factor \mathbf{z}_{o} and the ratio of the specific heats can be determined using Figs. 4.5 (Ref. 4.7), 4.6 (Ref. 4.8) and 4.7 (Ref. 4.9). Placing these in Eq. (4.3) values of qo are obtained.

These values of $^{q}_{o}$ are placed in Eq. (4.4) together with values of $^{p}_{c}$, $^{p}_{o}$, D, L, and f. The values of the second integral in Eq. (4.4) are evaluated using Table 4.1, leaving only the values of the first integral to be solved for. Entering Table 4.1 with the values of these integrals, the values of the upper limits P_{ri} are obtained, and finally the values of Pi.

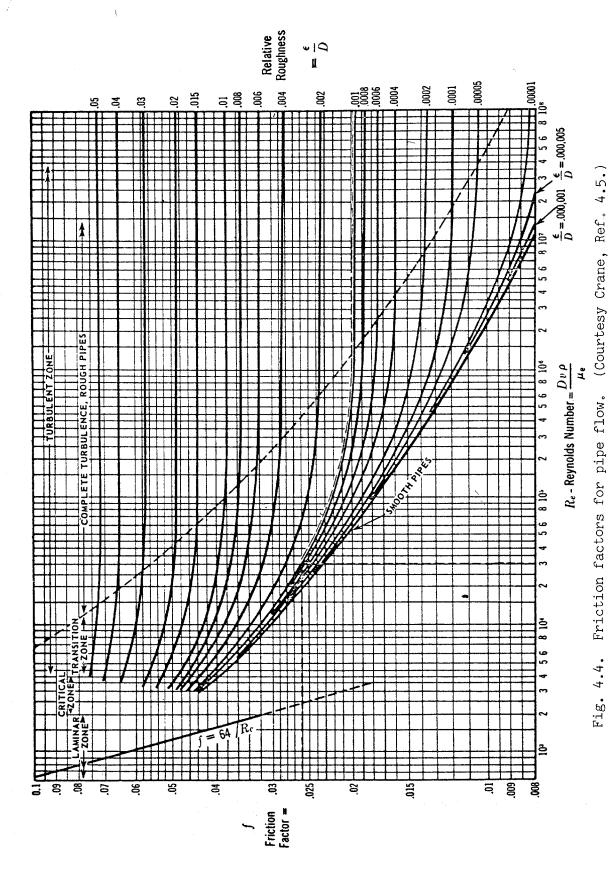


Fig. 4.6. Pseudoreduced pressure and temperature vs gas gravity. (Courtesy Natural Gasoline Association of America, Ref. 4.8.)

GAS GRAVITY (AIR . 1)

630 CONDINATE WELL FLUIDS

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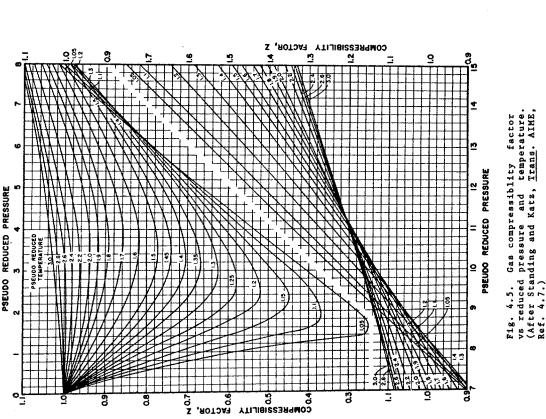


Fig. 4.5. Gas compressibility factor vs reduced pressure and temperature. (After Standing and Katz, Trans. AIME, Ref. 4.7.)

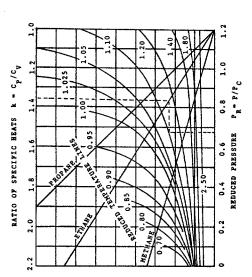


Fig. 4.7. Ratio of specific heats for hydrocarbons as functions of reduced pressure and temperature. (After Edmister, Ref. 4.9, Courtesy Petroleum Engineer.)

As a final step, the values of \mathbf{q}_{o} are reduced to standard conditions using

$$q_{sc} = q_o \frac{p_o T_{sc}}{p_{sc} T_o}$$
 (4.5)

Now a plot can be made of the flow rate q SC versus the inlet pressure p i as measured by the gauge on the bleed line. From this plot values for the flow rate are obtained for any value of inlet pressure. If the outlet velocity is subsonic, p O will be atmospheric, and Eq. (4.4) may be used alone to find the relation between p i and q O, and using Eq. (4.5) to reduce q O values to standard conditions.

4.3 Illustrative Example

A gas well was vented through two fully-opened gate valves and a 50 ft, 4 inch schedule 160 bleed line. A pressure gauge upstream from the valves initially recorded 1005 psig and 886 psig six days later when it was brought under control. The method described in the previous section will be used to calculate the initial and final flow rates and the gas vented during the six day blowout. Additional data needed to perform the calculation include:

Pipe absolute roughness = 0.0018 inch Line inside diameter = 3.438 inch Gas gravity = 0.60 Flow temperature = 77°F Barometric pressure = 14.62 psia Standard temperature = 60°F Standard pressure = 14.7 psia

Solution

(1) Adjusted bleed line length for two valves.

L = 50 + 2x13x(3.438/12)

L = 57.45 ft.

(2) Gas deviation factor and ratio of specific heats.

Find P_c = 672 psia and T_c = 3580R from Fig. 4.6 for G = 0.60. For T_o = 77 F, T_r = (77+460)/358 = 1.50. For P_o = 400 psia, for example, P_r = 400/672 = 0.60. From Fig. 4.5 Z_o = 0.94. From Fig. 4.7, k = 1.3.

(3) Friction factor

Relative pipe roughness = 0.0018/3.438 = 0.00052.

From Fig. 4.4, for complete turbulence, f = 0.017.

(4) Flow rate

By Eq. (4.3)

$$q_0 = 19.53x(3.438)^2(1.3x0.94x537/0.60)^{0.5}$$

 $q_0 = 7634 \text{ ft}^3/\text{day at } 400 \text{ psi and } 77^{\circ}\text{F}$

By Eq. (4.5)

$$q_{sc} = 7634 \times \frac{400}{14.7} \times \frac{520}{537}$$

= 201,000 MSCF/D

= 201.0 MMSCF/D (Table 4.2 and Fig. 4.7)

(5) Value of inlet pressure

Substitute q O from (4) and solve for the first integral of Eq. (4.4). For p O = 400 psia p PO = 400/672 = 0.60. From Table 4.1 for q PO = 1.50, for p PO = 0.60 the value of the second integral of Eq. (4.4) is 0.18. Note that values in Table 4.1 are to be multiplied by 1000. Equation (4.4) becomes

$$7634 = 7.965 \times \frac{672 \times 3.438^{5} \times 537}{400 \times 0.60 \times 57.45 \times 0.017} \text{ (A-0.18)}$$

where A is the value of the first integral, which from the above

A = 1.040

Enter Table 4.1 with A = 1.040, for $^{T}_{ro}$ = 1.50 by interpolation find P_{ri} = 1.388. Then

$$p_{i} = p_{ri}xp_{c} = 1.388x672 = 932 psia$$

(6) Repeat the above for a range of assumed values of outlet pressure ^{p}o . Table 4.2 summarizes the intermediate values and provides the data from with the flow rate at standard condition in plotted versus inlet pressure as shown in Fig. 4.8.

Using Fig. 4.8 the flow rates at 1005 psig (1019.7 psia) and 886 psig (900.7 psia) are, respectively, 235

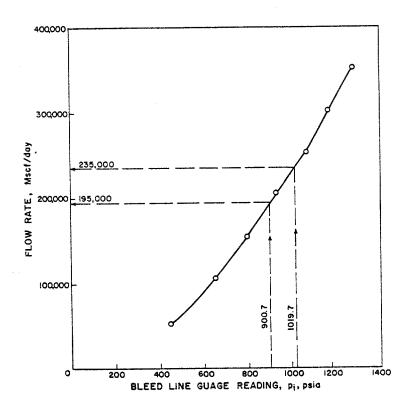


Fig. 4.8. Flow rate versus inlet pressure.

Table 4.2

	· ·						
p _o	100	200	300	400	500	600	700
p _{ro}	0.149	0.298	0.446	0.595	0.744	0.893	1.042
z _o	0.99	0.97	0.95	0.94	0.92	0.91	0.90
o ^p	7835	7755	7675	7634	7552	7511	7470
p _{ro}	0	0.04	0.09	0.18	0.28	0.42	0.57
p _r	i 0.221	0.477	0.739	1.040	1.344	1.690	2.034
pri	0.664	0.976	1.178	1.388	1.602	1.745	1.905
pi	446	650	792	932	1076	1173	1280
q sc	* 52.6	101.4	154.6	201.0	253.5	302.6	351.1

^{*}q_{sc} in MMSCF/D.

and 195 MMSCF/D. Assuming a linear decline in flow rate for the six day period the vented gas volume is

$$Q = \frac{235+195}{2} \times 6 = 1,290 \text{ MMSCF}$$

4.4 Limitations and Accuracy of Bleed Line Flow Calculations

The above calculations are limited to the case of a line of uniform cross section with no area restriction. This should usually be the case except when a valve is partially closed. A partially closed valve creates a throat. With a limited length of the line it is possible that the flow may be choked at the throat. The situation becomes somewhat more complex as supersonic flow might occur at the throat exit. Also with the valve partially closed it is hard to predict the friction losses across the valve, the cross section of the flow and the flow temperature and pressure at the throat. However, flow rates calculated assuming fully open valves are maximum estimates.

In the case of uniform lines, the calculated flow rate accuracy is sensitive to the flow temperature, the gas gravity and the friction factor as determined by the pipe roughness. Considering the above numerical example, let the flow temperature be $177^{\circ}F$ instead of $77^{\circ}F$. The flow rate corresponding to P_{i} of 1019.7 psig would be 256 MMSCF/day instead of 235 MMSCF/day. An error of 100 degrees in determining the flow temperature will only result in an error less than 10 per cent in the flowrate. This is relatively small because only the absolute temperature raised to the power of 0.5 appears in the calculations.

If we cut the pipe roughness down by half, say to 0.0009 inch, the relative roughness and friction factors are then 0.00026 and 0.0145 respectively, resulting in a flow rate of 255 MMSCF/day. A 50 per cent error in the pipe roughness will result in an error in flow rate less than 10 per cent.

The gas gravity can usually be estimated within 0.1. Should the gas gravity be 0.7 instead of 0.6, a flow rate of 216 MMSCF/day is calculated. This again represents an error in flow rate less than 10 per cent.

The flow temperature, gas gravity and pipe roughness can usually be estimated with accuracy at least equal to that used in the above discussion. The flow rate calculated with this method is fairly accurate. Table 4.1. Values of $\int_0^{Pr} (p_r/z) dp_r$. (After Nisle and Poettman, Ref. 4.4. Courtesy The Petroleum Engineer.)

CAUTION Multiply all values given in the table by 1000, e.g., 0.00228 is actually 2.28.

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Table 4.1, page4.

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	Peudo reduced	03522 03560 03599 03638 03638	03717 03756 93796 03836 03876	03916 03956 03996 04037 04078	04119 04201 04201 04242 04243	04325 04367 04409 04451 04451	04536 04578 04621 04664 04707	04750 04793 04837 04880 04924	04968 05012 05056 05100 05145	05189 05234 05279 05324 05369	05414 05459 05505 06551 06551	05643 05689 05735 05781 05781	05874 05921 05968 06015 06062	06109 06157 96254 96332 96332
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	9	03741 03780 03821 03861 03901	03942 03982 04023 04064 04105	04146 04188 04229 04271 04313	04355 04397 04439 04481 04524	04568 04609 04652 04695 04738	04781 04824 04868 04912 04955	04999 05043 05087 05131 05176	05220 05265 05310 05354 05399	05444 05490 05535 05580 05628	05671 05717 05763 05809 05855	05901 05947 06993 06040 06086	06133 06180 06227 06274 06321	96368 96415 96463 96463
	92	03854 03854 03894 03935 03976	04058 04058 04099 04140	04223 04265 04307 04348 04391	04433 04475 04518 04560 04603	04646 04689 04732 04775	04862 04905 04949 04993 05037	05081 05125 05189 05214 05258	06303 06347 06332 06437 06482	05527 05573 05618 05664 05709	05755 05801 05847 05893 05939	05985 06031 06078 06124 06171	06217 06264 06311 06358 06405	06452 06499 06547 06564
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	1.45	04269 04310 04352 04394 04436	04478 04520 04562 04604 04647	04689 04732 04774 04817 04860	04903 04946 04989 05032 05075	05118 05162 05205 05249 05292	05336 05380 05424 05467 05511	05556 05600 05644 05688 05733	05777 05821 05866 05911 05955	06000 06045 06090 06135 06180	06225 06270 06316 06361 06406	06452 06497 06543 06589 06634	06680 06726 06772 06818	06910 06956 07002 07048 07048
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	1.35	04474 04516 04558 04600 04642	04684 04726 04768 04810 04852	04895 04937 04980 05023 05065	05108 05151 05194 05237 05280	05323 05366 05409 05452 05495	05539 05582 05626 05689 05713	05756 05800 05844 05888 05932	05976 06020 06064 06108 06152	06196 06240 06285 06329 06374	06418 06463 06507 06552 06597	06642 06686 06731 06776 06821	06866 06911 06956 07002 07047	07092 07137 07180 67226
	1.30	04594 04636 04678 04719 04761	04803 04845 04887 04929 04972	05014 05056 05099 05141 05184	05226 05269 05311 05354 05397	05440 05483 05526 05569 05612	05655 05698 05741 05784 05828	05871 05915 05958 06002 06045	06089 06133 06176 06220 06264	06308 06352 06396 06440 06484	06528 06572 06616 06661 06705	06749 06838 06838 06882 06927	06972 07016 07061 07106 07150	07195 07240 07286 67330 67374
1	1.23	04697 04739 04822 04863	04905 04947 04989 05030 05072	05114 05156 05198 05241 05283	05325 05367 05410 05452 05494	05537 05529 05622 05665 05707	05750 05793 05835 05878 05878	0.5964 06007 06050 06093 06136	06179 06223 06266 06309 06353	06396 06440 06483 06527 06570	06614 06658 06701 06745 06789	06833 06877 06921 04965 07009	07053 07097 07141 07185 07229	07273 07317 07362 07458
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A.	1.15	04992 05032 05073 05114 06156	05195 05236 05277 05318 05359	05400 05441 05483 05524 05565	05606 05648 05689 05731 05772	05814 05855 05897 05938 05980	06022 06063 06105 06147 06189	06231 06273 06315 06357 06399	06441 06453 06525 06567 06610	06694 06694 06779 0621	06864 06906 06949 06991 07034	07077 07119 07162 0720 5 07247	07290 07333 07378 07419 07462	07505 07548 07591 07654 07677
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	8.8	06260 06356 06453 06453	06502 06551 06600 06649 06698	06747 06797 06846 06896 06946	06996 07046 07096 07147 07197	07248 07299 07349 07400 07452	07503 07554 07606 07658 07709	07761 07813 07866 07918 07970	08023 08075 08128 08181 08234	08287 08341 08394 08447 08501	08585 08609 08663 08717 08771	08826 08880 08935 08990 09044	09099 09135 09210 09265 09321	00376 00432 00432 00544 00664
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Pseudo reduced ter	2.40	06347 06395 06443 06492 06540	06589 06637 06686 06735 06784	06833 06883 06932 06981 07031	07081 07131 07181 07231 07281	07332 07382 07433 07484 07535	07586 07637 07688 07739 07791	07842 07894 07946 07998 08050	08102 08155 08207 08260 08312	06365 08418 08471 08578 08578	08631 08685 08738 08792 08846	08900 08954 09008 09063	00172 00226 09281 09336 09391	09446 99501 9957 99513 99613
Peepe	1.20	06422 06470 06518 06566 06615	06663 06712 06760 06809 06858	06907 06956 07005 07055 07104	07154 07204 07253 07303 07353	07403 07454 07504 07555 07605	07656 07707 07758 07809 07860	07911 07963 08014 08068 08117	08168 08221 08273 08326 08378	08430 08483 08535 08588 08641	08694 08747 08800 08853 08907	08960 09014 09068 09121 09176	09229 09283 09338 09392 09446	09501 09586 00410 09665 68730
	8.8	06532 06579 06627 06675 06723	06772 06820 06868 06917 06966	07015 07063 07112 07162 07211	07260 07309 07359 07409 07458	07508 07558 07608 07658 07708	07758 07809 07859 07910 07961	08011 08062 08113 08164 08215	08267 08318 08369 08421 08472	08524 08576 08628 08680 08732	08784 08836 08889 08941 08994	09047 09099 09152 09205 09258	09311 09364 09418 - 09471 09524	00578 09632 09635 09739 09739
	1.90	06603 06653 06701 06749	06845 06893 06942 06990 07038	07087 07136 07185 07233 07282	07332 07381 07430 07479 07529	07579 07628 07678 07728 07778	07828 07878 07928 07978 08029	08079 08130 08130 08231 08282	08333 08384 08435 08486 08537	08588 08640 08691 08743 08795	08848 08898 08950 09002 09054	09108 09158 09211 09263 09316	09368 09421 09473 09526 09579	09632 09724 09724 09761
	1.80	06689 06737 06785 06832 06832	06928 06976 07025 07073 07121	07170 07218 07267 07316 07364	07413 07462 07511 07560	07659 07708 07758 07807 07857	07906 07956 08006 08056 08106	08136 08206 08257 08307 08357	08408 08458 08509 08560	08661 08712 08763 08814 08866	08917 08968 09019 09071 09122	09174 09226 09277 09329 09381	09433 09485 09537 09589 09641	00004 00746 00851 00005
ure Tr	1.70	06864 06864 06902 06950 06997	07045 07093 07141 07189 07237	07285 07333 07382 07430 07479	07527 07576 07624 07673 07722	07771 07820 07889 07918 07967	08017 08086 08116 08155 08215	08264 08314 08364 08414 08464	08514 08564 08614 08664 08715	08765 08815 08865 08916 08967	09018 09069 09119 09170 09221	09272 09324 09375 09426 09477	09529 09580 09632 09633 09735	78787 80808 80808 60044 14008
Seudo reduced Temperature Tr	1.60	06928 06974 07021 07068 07115	07163 07210 07258 07305 07353	07401 07449 07497 07544 07592	07641 07689 07737 07785 07833	07882 07930 07979 08027 08078	08125 08173 08222 08271 08271	08369 08418 08467 08516 08566	08615 08664 08714 08763	08862 08912 08962 09011 09061	09111 09161 09211 09261	09362 09412 09462 09512 09563	09613 09684 09714 09765 09816	00806 09917 09968 10019 10078
Pseudo redu	1.50	07059 07106 07153 07200 07246	07293 07340 07387 07435 07482	67529 07576 07624 07671 07719	07766 07814 07862 07909 07957	08005 08053 08101 08149 08197	08245 08293 08341 08390	08486 08535 08583 08632 08631	08729 08778 08827 08876 08925	08974 09023 09072 09121 09170	09219 09268 09318 09367 09417	09466 09516 09565 09615 0964	09714 09764 09814 09864 09914	00964 10014 10014 10114 10114
	1.45	07141 07188 07234 07281 07327	07374 07421 07468 07515 07561	07608 07655 07703 07750	07844 07891 07939 07986	08081 08129 08176 08224 08272	08319 08367 08415 08463 08511	08559 08657 08555 08704	08800 08848 08897 08945	09042 09091 09140 09188	09286 09335 09384 09432	09530 09580 09629 09678	09776 09825 09875 08924 09973	10023 10072 10172 10171
	1.40	07238 07284 07330 07376 07422	07469 07515 07561 07608 07654	07701 07748 07794 07841 07888	07935 07981 08028 08075 08122	08169 08217 08264 08311 08358	08406 08453 08500 08548 08595	08643 08690 08738 08786	08981 08929 08977 09025 09073	09121 09169 09217 09265	09381 09409 09458 09506 09554	09603 09651 09700 09748	09846 09894 09943 09992 10041	10089 10138 10187 10187 10284
	1.35	07319 07365 07410 07456 07502	07548 07593 07639 07685 07731	07777 07823 07869 07916 07962	08008 08054 08101 08147	08240 08287 08333 08380 08427	08473 08520 08567 08614 08660	08707 08754 08801 08848 08895	08942 08990 09037 09084 09131	09179 09226 09273 09321 09368	09416 09463 09511 09558 09606	09654 09701 09749 09797	09892 09894 09988 10036 10084	10132 10180 10228 10278 10274
	1.30	07420 07465 07510 07555	07646 07691 07736 07781 07781	07872 07918 07963 08009 08054	08100 08145 08191 08237 08282	06328 08374 08420 08466 08512	08557 08603 08649 08696 08742	08788 08834 08830 08926 08973	09019 09065 09112 09158 09204	09251 09297 09344 09391 09437	09484 09530 09577 09624 09671	09717 09764 09811 09858 09905	09952 09999 10046 10093	10187 10234 10381 10328 10378
rature Tr	1.35	07495 07539 07584 07628 07628	07718 07762 07807 07852 07858	07941 07986 08031 08076 08121	08166 08211 08256 08301 08346	08391 08436 08481 08526 08571	08617 08662 08707 08733 08753	08843 08834 08934 09980	09071 09116 09162 09208 09253	09299 09345 09390 09436 09482	09528 09574 09620 09668 09712	09758 09804 09850 09896 09842	09988 10034 10080 10126 10173	10219 10256 10358 10358 10401
Parado reduced temperature	8.1	07595 07638 07726 07726	07814 07858 07902 07946 07940	08034 08078 08123 08167 08211	08344 08344 08344 08433	06477 08521 08566 08610	08599 08744 08733 08833	08923 08967 09012 09057	09146 09191 09236 09281	09371 09416 09461 09506	09596 09641 09687 09732	09822 09867 09913 09958 10003	10049 10094 10139 10185 10230	10275 10321 10362 10412 10412
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	1.10	07905 07948 09903 09033	0816 08160 08202 08202 08245	985330 98533 98435 98458	08543 08586 08628 08671	06757 08842 08842 08828	08971 09014 09057 09100	09186 09229 09272 09315	09444 09444 09530 09530	09616 09659 09703 09746	09832 09875 09919 09962 10005	10049 10092 10135 10179 10222	10266 10309 10352 10396 10439	10483 10526 10670 10613 10613
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SECTION 5 EXTRAPOLATION OF MEASURED OPEN FLOW RATES

5.1 <u>Introduction</u>

It is common practice in the petroleum industry to maintain updated graphical records of producing rates plotted versus time, among other possible variables. The producing rates may be on well, lease, reservoir or field bases. Plots of production rate versus time are called "decline curves" even though there may be periods of rate increases. The main use of decline curves is to predict future producing rates and ultimate recovery by extrapolating past producing rate history into the future. In the case of well blowouts, where a period of unmeasured blowout rates is followed by a period of measured blowout rates, it is just as reasonable to extrapolate into the past.

The extrapolation of decline curves, into either the past or the future may be done by drawing a trend line or curve through the data from which the extrapolation is made. Because extrapolation of straight or nearly straight lines is more reliable than extrapolating curved lines, an attempt is usually made to discover a type of plot which produces a straight line, or one nearly straight. These techniques are discussed in Ref. 5.1, and will not be repeated here.

A more objective approach to extrapolation is by curve fitting in which a variety of mathematical forms relating flow rate and time is explored to find the one which fits the data with the smallest deviation. In this method, as in graphical "eyeball" extrapolation, it is often observed that the earlier and later portions of the data appear to have different trends. In this case, of course, it is reasonable to use the later portion of the data to forcast future rates, and the earlier portion to backcast.

5.2 Diverting Blowouts

Blowout wells are often brought under control by capping. In this procedure a section of pipe containing a full opening valve or valves is positioned over the flow stream so that it flows through the pipe section and valve(s). The pipe section is sealed to the well casing after which closing the valve brings the well under control.

In some cases it is feared that closing the valve will cause an underground blowout, i.e., gas will flow from the blowout formation to another, usually much shallower, formation or to the surface around (outside of) the casing. In other cases it is feared that the casing to which the cap is attached will not withstand the pressure when the valve is closed. In these cases the capping section is provided with side outlets or diverter lines below the valve(s), so that when the valve is closed, the stream is diverted away from the well. Now it is possible to place a rig over the well and using snubbing procedures to get pipe down the well through which heavy mud or cement may be pumped to kill the well or to complete it as a producing well.

A similar situation exists where the blowout preventers are closed and the well blows through diverter or blooie lines, whose valves are not closed, as explained above, for fear of casing rupture, failure of the blowout preventers, and/or underground blowouts. In some cases the diverted gas is flared and in others it is captured for sales. In the former case it is possible under some circumstances to estimate flow rate from the pressure in the diverter or blooie line, as discussed in Section 4. Where the gas is sold, it is of course measured. In both of these cases it may be some time after start of blowout before flow rates are measured, and rates during this period can be estimated using extrapolation techniques.

5.3 Example Illustrating Extrapolation

Many mathematical forms are used to define decline curves: linear, exponential, polynomial, hyperbolic, harmonic, etc. The most commonly used form is the exponential decline, i.e., one in which flow rate declines exponentially with time and therefore plots as a straight line on semilog paper, rate plotted on the log scale. Example 5.1 illustrates the extrapolation of measured blowout rates to estimate rates prior to the installation of measurement devices.

Example 5.1

A diverter installation was completed on a blowing gas well 18 days after start of blowout. During the following 25 days gas was flowed into a pipeline while snubbing operations were in progress to kill the well. Flow rate data was available for only 10 of the last 25 days before the well was brought under control:

DAYS 19 21 24 27 29 32 35 37 41 43 MMSCF/D 48.2 49.1 49.2 42.8 45.0 41.9 39.3 36.2 36.7 35.1

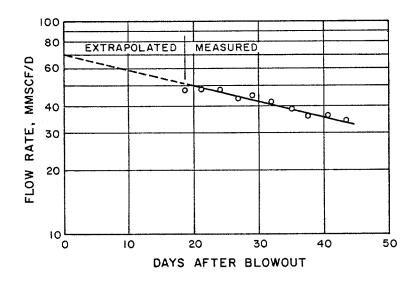


Fig. 5.1. Plot of flow rate data for Example 5.1.

Solution-Graphical

1. Plot the data on semilog paper, Fig. 5.1.

2. Draw a straight line through the data points, and extrapolate to t=0 and t=50.

Read: q=70.0 MMSCF/D for t=0 days q=30.0 MMSCF/D for t=50 days

Solve for
$$q_0$$
 and a in $q = q_0 e^{-at}$
For $t = 0$, $70 = q_0 e^{-a(0)}$ or $q_0 = 70$

For
$$t = 50$$
, $30 = 70e^{-a(50)}$ and $a = 0.017 \text{ days}^{-1}$

3. Vented gas during first 18 days

$$Q = \frac{q_0 - q_{18}}{a}$$
$$= \frac{70.0 - 51.0}{0.017}$$

= 1120 MMSCF

4. Vented gas during last 25 days

$$Q = \frac{q_{18} - q_{43}}{a}$$

$$Q = \frac{51.0 - 34.0}{0.017}$$

Q = 1000 MMSCF

Solution-Analylical

Use the method of Least Squares to calculate the equation of the straight line (semilog plot) which best fits the data. Using $q=q_0e^{-at}$ as the basic form and ln $q=\ln \ q_0+at$ as the linear equivalent, the Least Square equations are:

$$\Sigma$$
 ln q = n ln $q_0 + a\Sigma t$
 Σ t ln q = ln $q_0 \Sigma$ t+a Σ t^2

For the example: n=10, Σ ln q=37.385; Σ t=308; and Σ t =10,096. Placing these values in the above equations:

$$37.385 = 10 \ln q_0 + 308a$$

 $1142.3 = 308 \ln q_0 + 10096a$

These solve to yield q =67.3 MMSCF/D and a=-0.0151 days $^{-1}$. Using these values the calculated values of q(18 day)=51.3 MMSCF/D and q(43 days)=35.2 MMSCF/D. Then the gas vented during the first 18 days is calculated as

Q = (67.3-51.3)/0.0151 = 1060 MMSCF

and that during the last 25 days as

Q = (51.3-35.2)/0.0151 = 1066 MMSCF.

5.4 Error Analysis

With data of the quantity and quality of that given in Example 5.1, the calculated vented gas volume during the first 18 days should be within five percent. This assumes that the flow rate is declining during those first 18 days at the same exponential rate as in the later 25 days. There is, of course, no assurance that this is true, although it is a most reasonable assumption. There are factors which could cause the flow rate in the early days to be either higher or lower than the extrapolated values.

The accuracy of the extrapolation may be improved by fitting a curve to the data, using statistical techniques such as the method of Least Squares, as shown in Example 5.1. Such techniques are also useful where there are larger and most erratic fluctuations in the data. They provide an objective calculation of the best fit of a line or curve to the data points as opposed to the "eyeball" method.

Some consideration should be given to the effect of installing a diverter line on the well and to the effect of connecting the diverter line into a pipeline into which the gas must flow against the prevailing pipeline pressure. The calculation methods of Example 8.1 are available for evaluating the effect of these.

Section 6 ESTIMATES FROM BACK PRESSURE TESTS

6.1 Introduction

Extrapolation of back pressure tests of gas wells at low rates is used in regulatory work to determine the open flow capacity (rate). The open flow capacity is the rate at which a well would flow if the flowing bottom hole pressure were atmospheric, i.e., if there were no flow string resistance, only formation resistance. Open flow capacities are therefore estimates of maximum rates during blowouts.

Back pressure testing consist of flowing a well at several successive rates and measuring at each rate the flowing bottom hole pressure, the flowing well head pressure and the flow rate. The static reservoir pressure is also measured or calculated from measured static well head pressures. The theory and practice of back pressure testing is discussed in Refs. 6.1-6.3.

The data from a back pressure test are plotted on log-log paper with flow rate as abscissa versus the differences of the squares of the static and flowing bottom hole absolute pressures. In most cases the data plot as a straight line, and extrapolate to the open flow capacity, i.e., flowing bottom hole pressure equal to atmospheric pressure.

The results of back pressure tests are useful in calculating the rate at which gas wells can flow against any surface (back) pressure. With proper caution, these tests can also be of use in estimating blowout rates; particularly if a test has been made on a well which later blew out, or with less precision on a well using back pressure tests from other wells producing from the same reservoir.

6.2 Back Pressure Test Theory

The formula for the steady-state, radial flow of gases in the reservoir in the laminar regime is basic to most back pressure test theory. It is derived in Ref. 6.2 as

$$q_{sc} = \frac{703 \text{ k h } (p_e^2 - p_w^2)}{\mu \text{ T z ln } (r_e/r_w)}$$
(6.1)

Equation (6.1) predicts that a plot of flow rate versus the difference of the squares of the pressures on log-log paper will give a straight line whose slope is 45°. Experience shows that for the data from many wells this is true, particularly at lower flow rates. For other wells and at higher flow rates the slope is usually less than 45° and the formula of Eq. (6.1) is modified as

$$q_{sc} = \frac{703 \text{ k h } (p_e^2 - p_w^2)^n}{\mu \text{ T z ln } (r_e/r_w)}$$
(6.2)

The need for the exponent n in Eq. (6.2) is usually explained by the occurrence of turbulent flow in the formation. At low flow rates the regime is laminar and n = 1. At higher rates turbulent flow begins in the vicinity of the well, where gas velocities are highest. As flow rate is increased, the turbulent zone extends further into the formation, and under open flow conditions a considerable portion of the drainage area is in turbulent flow.

The back pressure formula is therefore written as

$$q_{sc} = C(p_e^2 - p_w^2)^n$$
 (6.3)

From Eq. (6.2) the coefficient C is a characteristic of each well and its drainage area, and includes the geometry (h, r_e and r_w), gas characteristics (μ and z), and formation permeability and temperature (k and T). As the values of some of these parameters are difficult to determine individually, they are grouped in the coefficient C.

Taking the logarithm of both sides of Eq. (6.3), it becomes

$$\log q_{SC} = \log C + n \log(p_e^2 - p_W^2)$$
 (6.4)

Figure 6.1 is a typical plot of data taken in a back pressure test. For a slope of 40° , n=tan 40° =0.839.

Extrapolation from the measured data to a flowing bottom hole pressure of 14.7 psia yields an open flow capacity of 53 MMSCF/D. It should be realized that the open flow capacity is a theoretical figure used for practical purposes, by regulatory bodies to deter-

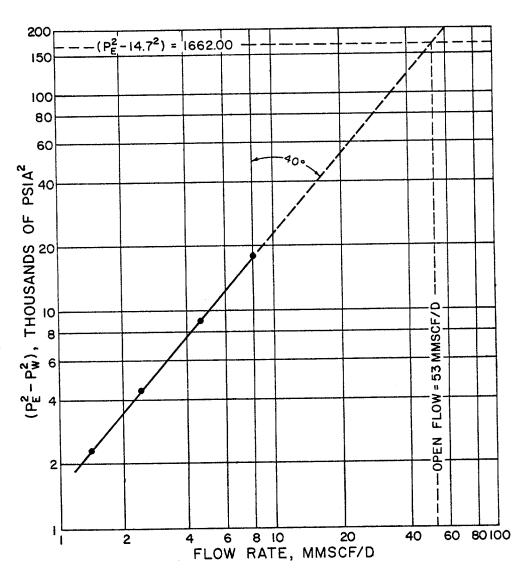


Fig. 6.1. Typical back pressure data plot with extrapolation to find open flow capacity p_e =1290psia.

mine allowables. The extrapolation assumes the constancy of the exponent n, i.e., an unchanging flow regime, and also the constancy of flowing temperature, gas viscosity and gas deviation factor.

In back pressure testing, the flow at a selected rate should be continued long enough for the reservoir to closely approach steady state conditions. Whenever stabilization cannot be reached within a reasonable period of time because of reservoir conditions, or when flow rates of sufficient duration to reach stabilized conditions are impractical, the constant time multipoint test (Refs. 6.5, 6.6 and 6.7) or the isochronal method (Ref. 6.6) should be used. Both methods are devised to give the coefficient C and the exponent n.

6.3 <u>Estimation of Blowout Rate from Back Pressure</u> Tests on the Blowout Well

In the above discussion it was pointed out that the blowout rate of a gas well will be lower, generally much lower, than the open flow capacity of the well because of two factors. One of these is the increasing importance of turbulence at higher flow rates, where test data are usually not taken. The other is the flow string resistance, which is not included in the back pressure test which measures only formation resistance.

Some idea of the importance of these factors can be understood from a theoretical study by Elenbaas and Katz, Ref. 6.3. This study pertained to a well 5000 feet deep with a static reservoir pressure of 2100 psia. Flow was through a casing of 6-5/8 inches I.D. The formation porosity was 26 percent for a Wilcox sand of 48-65 mesh for which permeability and turbulence characteristics were determined by laboratory tests. Calculations were placed on one foot of formation thickness for a gas gravity of 0.65 (Air=1) and a reservoir temperature of 115°F.

The solid line of Fig. 6.2 is the calculated back pressure plot. Note that in the low flow rate range the slope is 45° (n=1.00) and that it increases progressively through the so called transition (partially turbulent) range to the almost fully turbulent range where the slope approaches 60° (n=0.5).

At 50 MMSCF/D the friction of the flow string caused the flowing bottom hole pressure to be approximately 1500 psia. Thus, the blowout rate is determined as 50 MMSCF/D and not some considerably higher rate, the open flow capacity, taken where flowing bottom hole pressure is assumed to be atmospheric.

Figure 6.2 also shows the error of extrapolating back pressure data taken in the laminar or laminar-turbulent transition range to estimate either open flow capacities or blowout rates. Although data / taken over a limited range of flow rates usually appears to be linear on the log-log plot, over a wide range the data plot as a curve as shown in Fig. 6.2. Table I gives an idea of the overestimation of blowout rates from improper extrapolation.

In some back pressure tests the data do not plot as or near to a straight line on log-log paper. In most of these cases the data are usually erratic, and where four or more data points are available there

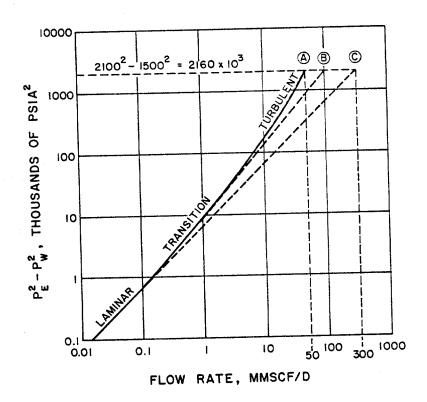


Fig.6.2 Back pressure curve covering laminar through full turbulent flow in the reservoir.

Table I

Line (Fig. 4.2)	Α	В	С
Est'd Blowout Rate	50	100	300
Percent Overestimation	0	100	600

is no reasonably smooth trend line which can be drawn through the data. The usual explanation for this be-havior is formation damage which varies with flow rate.

Graham and Boyd, Ref. 6.4, have shown that back pressure tests on a number of Gulf Coast wells taken shortly after completion may not be reliable for predicting later flow performance, that both the coefficient C and the exponent n of Eq. (6.3) may change during production. These wells were generally found to have better flow characteristics after weeks or months of production during which the well was cleaned of formation damages during drilling and/or completion.

In view of the foregoing it is obvious that back pressure test data obtained on a well prior to blowout should be used with caution in estimating the well's blowout rate. Use of stabilized back pressure data

without these considerations will generally result in an overestimation of the blowout rate by as much as several hundred percent.

6.4 Use of Back Pressure Tests on Other Wells in the Same Reservoir

Section 6.3 discussed the problems of using back pressure data on the blowout well to estimate its subsequent blowout rate. Let us now consider the additional difficulty of using back pressure data, not from the blowout well, but from other wells completed in the same reservoir.

The flow performance of a gas well depends on several parameters. These parameters are classified into two groups. The first group include parameters which can reasonably be assumed to remain essentially the same at different wells in the same reservoir, such as:

- 1. shut-in pressure
- 2. reservoir temperature
- 3. average gas viscosity
- 4. gas deviation factor

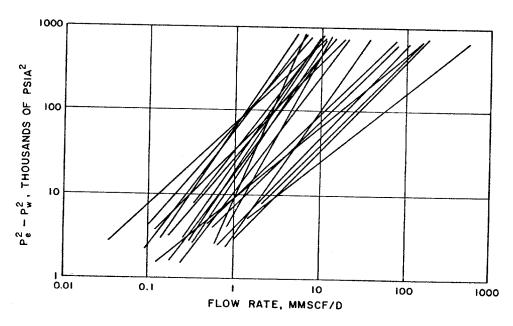


Fig. 6.3. Back pressure data on 23 wells in one field. (After Rawlins and Schellhardt, Ref. 6.1. Courtesy U.S. Bureau of Mines.)

The second group includes parameters that are more likely to vary, sometimes drastically. Some of these parameters are:

1. formation thickness

2. formation permeability

formation damage (skin)

4. well stimulation

5. drainage radius

6. effective well radius

type of completion

It should be expected, therefore, that wells producing from the same reservoir will exhibit different flow characteristics. Figure 6.3 after Rawlins and Schellhardt (Ref. 6.1), shows the results of back presure tests on 23 wells in one field, presumably completed in the same reservoir. Although it is likely that a study of the available data would explain some of the differences among the wells, it appears that at least a ten-fold variation exists in the open flow capacity of these wells.

6.5 Illustrative Example

A gas well blew out of control for 10 days. The back pressure equation describing flow in an offset well where sand thickness averaged 38 feet is

$$q = 1.24 (p_e^2 - p_W^2)^{0.74}$$

where q is in MSCF/D. Assuming the same value of the exponent for the wild well, its back pressure equation may be written as

$$q = C(p_e^2 - p_W^2)^{0.74}$$

From Eqs (6.2) and (6.3) we may write

$$\frac{C}{h} = \frac{703 \text{ k}}{\mu \text{ T z ln}(r_e/r_w)}$$

Assuming k, μ , T, z, r_e and r_w are the same for both wells, C for the blowout well will be that for the offset well increased by the ratio of the formation thicknesses at the two wells. As formation thickness at the blowout well was determined to be 57 feet,

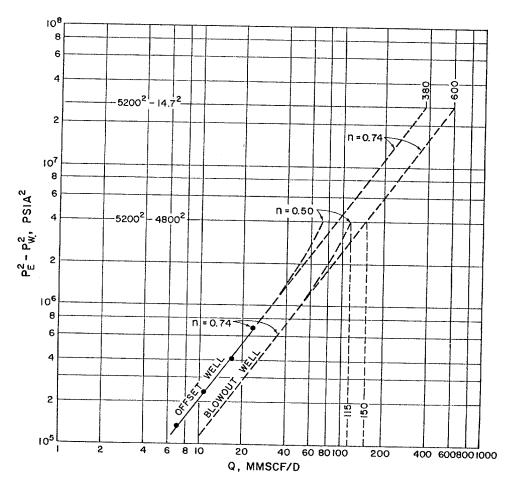


Fig. 6.4. Graphical solution to illustrative example,

C for the blowout well is calculated as

$$C = 1.24 \times \frac{57}{36} = 1.96$$

and the calculated back pressure equation for the wild well is

$$q = 1.96 (p_e^2 - p_w^2)^{0.74}$$

Reservoir pressure at the time of blowout was close to 5200 psia and the flowing bottom hole pressure was calculated to be 4800 psia at 150,000 MSCF/D using the methods of Section 8. Thus, the estimated blowout rate is

$$q = 1.96(5200^2 - 4800^2)^{0.74}$$

q = 150,000 MSCF/D (150 MMSCF/D)

Assuming slope of 0.74, at p_W = 14.7 psia the open flow capacity for the blowout well is calculated to be 600 MMSCF/D, and at 4800 psia flowing bottom hole pressure 150 MMSCF/D.

The graphical solutions for the above calculations are shown in Fig. 6.4. Also shown are extrapolations assuming complete turbulence is reached at a flowing bottom hole pressure of 4800 psia, i.e., that n = 0.50. For the blowout well this gives an estimated blowout rate of 115 MMSCF/D. Thus for 10 days the vented gas lies between 11.5 and 15.0 MMSCF. These figures are, of course, subject to large uncertainties. In addition to those introduced in the extrapolation of back pressure data, in this example we have those of adapting back pressure data from another well in the same reservoir. The accuracy of back pressure data is also open to question in some tests. For instance, in the example presented, the pressure drawdown, pe-pw, was 66 psi at 24 MMSCF/D and only 13 psi at the lowest rate of 7 MMSCF/D. Even where these pressures are measured with subsurface gauges, small uncertainties in the static and flowing pressures can cause large uncertainties in the back pressure curves. For example, had the drawdown at 24 MMSCF/D been 70 psi, rather than 66 psi, the slope between the two highest points would be 0.62 rather than 0.74, the average of all points. Where the pressure is calculated from surface measurements of a static column in an annulus or kill string, additional uncertainties are introduced.

SECTION 7 FORMATION RESISTANCE

7.1 Introduction

Flow string resistance and formation resistance control the amount of escaping gas during a blowout. Formation resistance occurs as gas flows through the small, tortuous pore spaces of the reservoir rock toward the wellbore. Flow string resistance occurs as gas flows up the wellbore toward the surface. These two resistances act in series, and it cannot be said, a priori, which is the more dominant.

Techniques are available to estimate the relationship of the flow rate of the escaping gas to these two resistances. The procedure follows three basic steps:

1. Formation resistance

Using an appropriate formula for the flow of gas in the reservoir, the flow rates are calculated for a range of flowing bottom hole pressures. A plot of these data such as shown in Fig. 7.1 is an expression of the formation resistance, which involves properties of the reservoir rock and gas. As indicated, maximum flow rate occurs for zero bottom hole pressure, and the rate declines as bottom hole pressure rises.

2. Flow string resistance

Using appropriate formulas for the flow of gas through pipes, annuli, etc., a flow rate is assumed and using a surface flowing pressure (usually zero psig) the pressure is calculated at the bottom of the flow string. Other bottom hole pressures are calculated for a range of assumed flow rates, the results of which plotted, as in Fig. 7.1, express the resistance of the flow string to the flow of gas.

3. Blowout rate

The intersection of the formation and flow string resistance curves is the calculated blowout rate, about 55 MMSCF/D for the plots of Fig. 7.1.

Procedures for calculating the formation resistance are investigated in this section and those for flow string resistance in Section 8. In Section 9 the combination

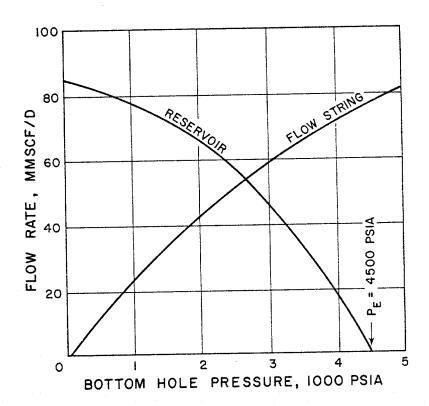


Fig.7.1 Typical formation and flow string resistance curves.

of the two procedures to estimate blowout rate(s) is discussed. Although the calculation techniques are based on established engineering principles and their use is straight forward, the results are strongly influenced by certain pieces of the data, some or all of which may be subject to large uncertainty. Also the calculations are laborious and are most appropriately handled by computers. The computer technique also allows extensive sensitivity analysis to help bracket data uncertainties.

7.2 Reservoir Geometry

The relationship of flow rate to pressure drop experienced by gas as it flows through the reservoir rock is influenced by: reservoir geometry, gas properties, and reservoir rock properties.

All of the calculation procedures used in this report are based on flow systems of radial geometry, such as shown in Fig. 7.2. In this radial system $^{\rm r}_{\rm W}$ represents the radius of the wellbore, $^{\rm r}_{\rm e}$ represents the outer or external radial boundary of the reservoir, and h represents the net thickness of the formation. The value of $^{\rm r}_{\rm W}$ is commonly taken to be the radius of the

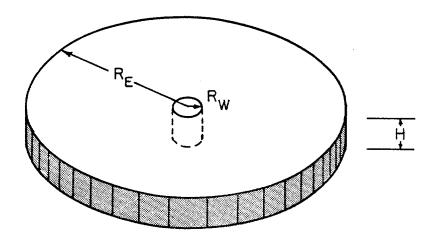


Fig. 7.2. A radial system of thickness h, external radius $r_{\rm e}$, and well bore radius $r_{\rm w}$.

drill bit if gas is flowing into an open hole and is taken to be the internal radius of the casing if it is flowing through perforated casing. The value of $r_{\rm e}$ is the radius of the boundary of the reservoir if the reservoir is indeed circular. Since no reservoirs are truly radial in shape and wells may be located off center, an equivalent radius is normally used, defined as the radius of a circle whose area is the same as the reservoir. This procedure has been shown in practice to be a good approximation for most reservoir systems. For the reservoir area A in acres, the equivalent external radius $r_{\rm e}$ in feet is:

$$r_{e} = [43,560 \text{ A/}\pi]^{0.5}$$
 (7.1)

For an area of 125 acres, the equivalent external radius is:

$$r_e = [43,560 \times 125/3.14]^{0.5} = 1316 \text{ ft.}$$

7.3 Steady State Flow

One formula which relates the gas flow rate q sc and the flowing bottom hole pressure p w for radial systems is derived as Eq. (6.72) of Ref. 7.1 as:

$$q_{SC} = \frac{703 \text{ kh } (p_e^2 - p_w^2)}{\mu Tz \ln(r_e/r_w)}$$
 (7.2)

in which

 q_{SC} = flow rate in SCF/day at standard conditions of 14.7 psia and 60°F k = reservoir permeability, darcies h = reservoir thickness, feet p_e = pressure at radius r_e , psia p_W = wellbore pressure at r_W , psia p_W = average gas viscosity, centipoise p_W = reservoir temperature, degrees Rankine p_W = average gas deviation factor, dimensionless p_W = ratio of external radius to well bore radius, dimensionless.

Equation (7.2) is commonly referred to as a steady state equation. It assumes the maintenance of pressure at a value P_e at the external radius r_e . This would be the case for active water drive gas reservoirs in which reservoir pressure is maintained at P_e , and for which Eq. (7.2) would be applicable except for an initial transient period which is discussed later. The pressure P_e is the reservoir pressure measured or estimated at the time of blowout.

Equation (7.2) may be used as shown in Example 7.1 to calculate a formation resistance such as Fig. 7.1, which shows the relationship between bottom hole pressure and flow rate.

Example 7.1

 P_e = 4500 psia; P_W = 3000 psia; k = 0.064 darcy h = 15 feet; μ = 0.025cp; z = 1.10 r_e = 6000 ft; r_W = 0.333 ft; T = 660°R

 $q_{sc} = \frac{703x0.064x15(4500^2 - 3000^2)}{0.025x600x1.10x1n(6000/0.333)}$

 $q_{sc} = 47.0 \text{ MMSCF/D}$

For $_{\rm W}^{\rm p}$ = 0, $_{\rm SC}^{\rm q}$ = 85 MMSCF/D. These points are included in the reservoir curve shown in Fig. 7.1.

7.4 Error Analysis

The terms in the denominator of Eq. (7.2) can be evaluated much more precisely than those in the numerator. All of which determine the relationship between the flow

rate and the bottom hole pressure. Gas deviation factors and viscosities can be estimated with good precision using the methods of Ref. 7.2. Reservoir temperatures can also be estimated with good precision in nearly all instances.

At first glance, the uncertainty in estimating the external radius $^{\rm r}_{\rm e}$ might appear to have a large effect on the calculation; but because both it and the wellbore radius, which is also subject to considerable uncertainty, enter the formula as logarithms, the effect of their uncertainty is relatively small. This may be illustrated by considering values of the external radius as twice (12,000 feet) and half (3,000 feet) the 6,000 foot radius used in Example 7.1. As $\ln(12,000/0.333) = 10.5$, $\ln(6,000/0.333) = 9.8$, and $\ln(3,000/0.333) = 9.1$, it is seen that a 100 per cent variation in the estimate of the external radius (or the ratio $^{\rm r}_{\rm e}/^{\rm r}_{\rm W}$) produces less than an 8 per cent variation in the logarithm.

On the other hand, the uncertainty in some of the other variables, particularly formation thickness and permeability, may be quite large, sometimes even in well developed reservoirs whose formation thicknesses and permeabilities vary widely throughout the reservoir and are reflected invarying well productivities. In discovery wells, the reservoir permeability can only be estimated from permeability trends in the area, depth or knowledge about the particular formation. The formation thickness may be obtained from driller's logs. electric or other logs run, but there is uncertainty about how representative the thickness at the well is of the whole drainage area. Also, in some instances the blowout may occur before the producing formation has been fully penetrated. In any event, the uncertainties in permeability and thickness are reflected directly in the calculated values of flow rates for assumed bottom hole pressures. Good estimates of thickness can be obtained from isopach maps in areas having good well control.

The effect of uncertainty in the external pressure pe, taken to be reservoir pressure at the time of blowout, varies with the absolute values of both the reservoir pressure and the assumed bottom hole pressures. For example, had the external pressure been 4400 psia instead of 4500 psia in Example 7.1, the calculated flow rate would have been 45 MMSCF/D instead of 47 MMSCF/D.

7.5 <u>Semi-Steady State Flow</u>

Where water drive is absent and after an initial transient period as mentioned above, the radial gas flow

formula Eq. (6.81) of Ref. 7.3 applies.

$$q_{sc} = \frac{703 \text{ kh}(p_e^2 - p_w^2)}{\mu Tz \ln(0.61 r_e/r_w)}$$
 (7.3)

The only difference between Eq. (7.3) and Eq. (7.2) is in the log term. Because of the relative insensitivity of the log term, as discussed in Sec. 7.4, flow rates calculated using Eq. (7.3) will be only slightly larger than those using Eq. (7.2). Furthermore, the remarks of Sec. 7.4 about error analysis apply equally to Eq. (7.3).

The external pressure P_e in Eq. (7.3) is taken as the measured or estimated pressure at the start of blow-out. In the absence of water drive, average reservoir pressure will decline during the blowout, and therefore also the external pressure. Where the pressure decline is small, i.e., where the volume of vented gas is small in relation to the initial gas in place in the reservoir, continued use of the initial pressure will cause only a small overestimate on the blowout rates, and in view of the other uncertainties, continued use of the initial pressure may be justified.

Where the pressure decline is appreciable, another semi-steady state formula is applicable, Eq. (6.82) of Ref. 7.3, or

$$q_{sc} = \frac{703 \text{ kh}(p_{avg}^2 - p_w^2)}{\mu Tz \ln(0.472 r_e/r_w)}$$
 (7.4)

In this equation, the external pressure is replaced by the average reservoir pressure, p_{avg} . Use of this equation requires a good estimate of the reservoir's hydrocarbon pore volume, calculated by Eq. (2.1) or Eq. (2.2) of Sec. 2 and then the use of Eq. (2.1) to calculate the average reservoir pressure, using for the cumulative produced gas G_p a summation of the daily blowout volumes. Example 7.2 illustrates this procedure using the data of Example 7.1 and a value for the hydrocarbon pore volume calculated as shown in Example 2.1

Example 7.2

 P_e = 4500 psia; k = 0.064 darcy h = 15 feet r_e = 6000 ft; r_W = 0.333 ft; T = 600 R μ = 0.025cp & z = 1.100 at 4500 psia & 600 R μ = 0.025cp & z = 1.095 at 4461 psia & 600°R V_{HCPV} = 340x10⁶ft³

From Fig. 7.1 the initial blowout rate is determined as 55 MMSCF/D from the intersection of the formation and flow string resistance curves. Assuming this rate for 5 days, the cumulative vented gas after 5 days of blowout is 275 MMSCF. Placing this value in Eq. (2.1)

$$\frac{14.7x275x10^{6}}{520} = \frac{4500x340x10^{6}}{1.10x600} - \frac{340x10^{6}}{600}x \left(\frac{p}{z}\right)_{av}$$

$$\left(\frac{p}{z}\right)_{avg} = 4074 \text{ psia}$$

From a plot of z vs $\frac{p}{z}$ for this reservoir gas, z = 1.095 and

 $p_{avg} = 1.095x4074 = 4461 psia$

This value of p avg may now be used in Eq. (7.4) to find a new reservoir resistance curve, the dashed curve of Fig. 7.3. The intersection of this curve and the flow string resistance curve provides a new and lower value of the blowout rate, approximately 53 MMSCF/D as shown in Fig. 7.3. This value may then be assumed to hold for the next five days, or another selected interval, and the procedure continued.

Where the pressure decline is sufficient for using the material balance method described in Section 2, the cumulative vented volumes calculated by both methods may be compared. The method described by Example 7.2 includes, in addition to the errors discussed in Sec. 7.4, the error in estimating the hydrocarbon pore volume and those introduced in calculating the flow string resistance curve. The latter will be discussed in Section 8.

In many cases the reservoir drive mechanism is not known. It may be active water drive, partial water drive or volumetric expansion. In this event, the procedures described in both Secs. 7.3 and 7.4 should be followed, the results of which bracket the best estimate of the vented gas volumes, and include the possibility of partial water drive.

7.6 Transient Flow

The methods described in Secs. 7.3 and 7.5 assume

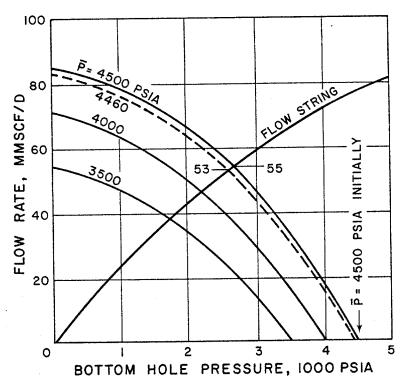


Fig.7.3. Formation resistance curves as calculated in Example 7.2.

that the steady-state or semi-steady state pressure distributions are established in the reservoir in a small and negligible period of time. The approximate time to establish these distributions is expressed by Eq. (6.29) of Ref. 7.4 in which the time referred to is called the readjustment time, or the time for a reservoir to adjust to steady-state or semi-steady state conditions following a sudden change in flow rate, e.g., a blowout.

$$t_R = \frac{0.04 r_e^2}{\eta} = \frac{0.04 \mu c \phi r_e^2}{k}$$
 (7.5)

in which

 t_R = time, days

 μ = gas viscosity, centipoise c = gas compressibility, psi⁻¹

 ϕ = formation porosity, fraction

k = permeability, darcies r_e = reservoir radius, ft

The gas compressibility may be calculated by methods explained in Ref. 7.5. For the conditions of Example 7.1, and a gas compressibility of $100 \times 10^{-6} \, \mathrm{psi}^{-1}$ and

a hydrocarbon porosity of 20 per cent,

$$t_{R} = \frac{0.04 \times 0.025 \times 100 \times 10^{-6} \times 0.20 \times 6000^{2}}{0.064}$$

$$t_R = 11 \text{ days}$$

For an external radius of 12,000 feet, the corresponding readjustment time is 44 days. The important variables affecting the readjustment time for gas reservoirs are permeability, gas compressibility, and reservoir size, i.e., re. Gas compressibility decreases with pressure and therefore also generally with depth. Thus large readjustment times are to be expected for larger, shallower (lower pressure) reservoirs and those having lower permeability.

Equation (7.5) may be also used to calculate the transient drainage radius at any time, i.e., the radius beyond which reservoir pressure has not been appreciably changed up to that time by the blowout or other rate changes. Inverting Eq. (7.5)

$$r_{e} = \left[\frac{kt}{0.04\mu c\phi}\right]^{0.5} \tag{7.6}$$

This value may then be substituted for r_e in Eq. (7.2) to yield

$$q_{sc} = \frac{703 \text{ kh}(p_e^2 - p_w^2)}{\mu \text{Tz}(0.5) \ln(\text{kt}/0.04\mu \text{c}\phi r_w^2)}$$
(7.7)

Equation (7.7) may be used to calculate reservoir resistance curves at any time t by procedures illustrated by Example 7.3.

Example 7.3

$$^{\rm p}_{\rm e}$$
 = 4500 psia; k = 0.064 darcy; μ = 0.025 cp c $_{\rm g}$ = 100x10 $^{\rm -6}$ psi $^{\rm -1}$; φ = 0.20; $r_{\rm w}$ = 0.333 ft $r_{\rm e}$ = 6000 ft; h = 15 ft; T = 6000R For $^{\rm p}_{\rm w}$ = 3000 psia:

In Eq. (7.7).

$$\frac{703 \text{ kh}}{\mu^{\text{Tz}}(0.5)} = \frac{703\text{x}0.064\text{x}15}{0.025\text{x}600\text{x}1.10\text{x}0.5} = 81.8\text{x}10^{6}$$

and

 $k/0.04\mu c\phi r_W^2 = 0.064/0.04x0.025x0.20x0.333^2$

= 28.8

Therefore:

$$q_{sc} = \frac{81.8 \times 10^6 (4500^2 - p_w^2)}{1n \ 28.8 \ t}$$

For $P_W = 2500$ psia, after 1 day of flow

$$q_{sc} = \frac{81.8 \times 10^6 (4500^2 - 2500^2)}{1n(28.8 \times 1)}$$

 $q_{sc} = 66.6 \text{ MMSCF/D}$

After 5, 11, 50 and 100 days for $_{\rm W}^{\rm p}$ = 2500 psia, $_{\rm SC}^{\rm q}$ = 60.0, 58.4, 54.3 and 52.5 MMSCF/D, respectively. Other values of $_{\rm W}^{\rm p}$ are assumed to provide data points for the curves of Fig. 7.4.

Figure 7.4 shows the formation resistance or pressure distribution curves for the reservoir of Example 7.3 at 1, 5, 11, 50 and 100 days. It is to be noted that the 11 day curve is the same as the reservoir resistance curve of Fig. 7.1 and essentially the same as the upper curve of Fig. 7.3, the slight difference being caused by the use of $\ln(r_e/r_W)$ in Fig. 7.1 and $\ln(0.65 r_e/r_W)$ in Fig. 7.3. If the reservoir has an effective external radius of 6,000 feet as used in Example 7.1, 7.2, and 7.3, and an active water drive to maintain pressure at its initial value, then the ll day curve of Fig. 7.4 may be used for the duration of the blowout. The effect of an error in the estimated effective external radius may be investigated by considering, for example, a value of 12,000 feet, i.e., a reservoir fourtimes as large. For this larger reservoir the readjustment time will be 44 days, and yield a steady-state formation resistance curves slightly above the 50 day curve of Fig. 7.4.

If on the other hand, the reservoir is of 6,000 feet in radius and has no water drive, then, after reaching the 11 day curve, the reservoir resistance curves will begin to change as shown in Fig. 7.3. As with the water drive reservoir, the effect of a larger external

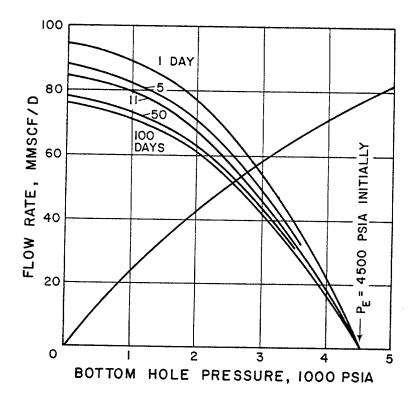


Fig.7.4. Transient formation resistance curves for Example 7.3.

radius, may be investigated. For an effective external radius of 12,000 feet, as this would be a reservoir fourtimes as large as the one of 6,000 feet, upon reaching semi-steady state performance at 44 days, the rates of pressure decline would be only one-fourth those calculated in Example 7.2 and shown in Fig. 7.3.

The intersections of the formation resistance curves with the flow string resistance curve of Fig. 7.4 give the blowout rates during the transient period, varying from 57.2 MMSCF/D at one day after start of blowout to 51.6 MMSCF/D after 100 days. For the latter figure it is assumed that the effective reservoir radius is at least as large as 18,000 feet which would allow a transient flow period of 100 days before entering into steady state or semi-steady state flow.

A plot of the intersections of the curves of Fig. 7.4 yields the lower curve of Fig. 7.5, from which the cumulative vented gas during the transient period is represented by the area under the curve. For an 11 day transient period the vented gas amounts to about 610 MMSCF, which includes an estimated 60 MMSCF during the first day. The flatness of the lower curve of Fig. 7.5 may be somewhat surprising to those familiar with flow rate changes for constant bottom hole pressure.

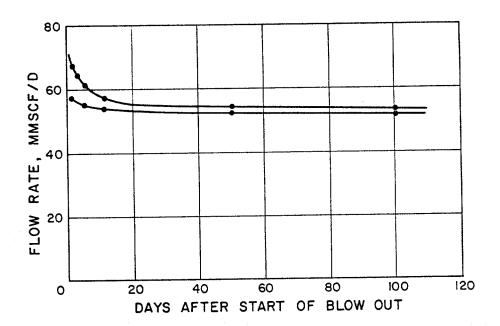


Fig.7.5. Calculated transient blowout rates for a constant bottom hole pressure of 2500 psia (upper curve) and for declining bottom hole pressure (lower curve).

The upper curve of Fig. 7.5 shows the flow rate at a constant bottom hole pressure of 2500 psia, showing rates much higher, particularly in the early blowout period, than for the case of declining bottom hole pressure, which prevails during blowouts.

7.7 Summary and Commentary

Methods have been presented in the foregoing by which the formation resistance curves may be calculated. Where there is doubt whether the reservoir has active, partial or no water drive, calculations should be made for cases of both active and no water drive. Similarly, the effect of effective reservoir radius and initial pressures should be investigated to help bracket the formation resistance curves. Use of computer programs is recommended to facilitate the investigation of different cases and variable sensitivity.

Reservoir permeability and thickness were cited as parameters in the formulas to which the calculated formation resistance curves are most sensitive. These parameters are unfortunately also the ones whose values are known with the least certainty. They are often used as one variable, the kh product to which the term capacity has been given. The effect of a wide range of possible formation capacities on the formation resistance

curves, and therefore on the blowout rates, is treated in Section 9.

The formulas used in the foregoing section are well established in reservoir engineering practice. They do not, however, include the effect of such things as turbulent or non-Darcy flow in the formation, partial well penetration of the formation, zonal damage, wellbore erosion, and perforation efficiency. They have not been included in the calculations because there is no way to evaluate them for blowout wells, and as a matter of fact, their evaluation is often difficult with normal producing wells. The effect of the first three is always to increase formation resistance, that is to reduce the flow rates below those calculated without their consideration. Their individual or combined effects may increase the formation resistance appreciably. Wellbore erosion, on the other hand will decrease the formation resistance by increasing the effective wellbore radius. As explained earlier, because the well radius occurs in a logarithm term, its effect on the calculated resistance curves is greatly attenuated. Perforation efficiencies are believed more usually to increase formation resistances, i.e., have the effect of a well bore radius smaller than the inside diameter of the casing. Even in the best of cases however, perforation does not reduce formation resistance appreciably, i.e., increase the effective well bore radius.

A discussion of the factors mentioned in the preceding paragraph is found in Ref. 7.6. In the estimation of well blowout rates it is recommended that consideration of these factors be included as part of the effect of formation capacity, to be discussed in Section 9.

SECTION 8 FLOW STRING RESISTANCE

8.1 Introduction

The computation of formation and flow string resistances was outlined in Sec. 7.1 along with a brief description of their use to estimate gas blowout rates. Section 7 covered the calculation of formation resistance curves for a variety of reservoir conditions, and this section will cover the calculation of flow string resistance curves.

Flow string resistance curves are calculated using appropriate formulas for the flow of gas through pipes, annuli, etc. by assuming a flow rate and a surface flowing pressure, usually atmospheric for most blowouts. The flowing bottom hole pressure is then calculated for this flow rate and for a range of other assumed flow rates. A plot of the flow rates versus the flowing bottom hole pressures is the flow string resistance curve.

Calculation of the bottom hole pressure required to achieve a given flow rate in a gas well is accomplished by applying the general energy equation over the flow path. For a flowing gas well the bottom hole pressure can be expressed as the sum of the surface pressure and three integrals evaluated over the flow path, or

$$p_W = p_S + \frac{1}{144} \int \rho dZ + \int dp_f + \frac{1}{144g} \int \rho v dv$$
 (8.1)

where:

p_w = bottom hole pressure, psia

p_s = súrface pressure, psia

P_f = pressure loss due to friction, psia

 ρ = gas density, lbs/ft³

Z = elevation above reference level, feet

v = velocity of gas, ft/sec

g = acceleration due to gravity, ft/sec²

The first integral term in Eq. (8.1) accounts for changes in pressure due to changes in potential energy along the flow path. The second is the change in pressure over the flow path due to friction. The third accounts for changes in pressure due to changes in kinetic energy along the flow path.

Numerous equations have been developed by integrating the general energy equation over flow paths of constant cross-section. The forms of these equations differ significantly because of various simplifying assumptions that were necessary in order to perform the integrations. Two of the integrated forms of the general energy equation in common use are those presented by Poettmann, (Ref. 8.1) and by Cullender and Smith (Ref. 8.2). However, with the use of modern, high-speed computers numerical integration of the basic terms in the general energy equation can be easily accomplished. This approach is recommended because it is more readily understood and offers greater flexibility than the integrated forms of the general energy equation.

8.2 Potential Energy Term

The change in pressure due to the change in potential energy over a flow path is:

$$(\Delta p)_g = \frac{1}{144} \int \rho dZ \qquad (8.2)$$

If Eq. (8.2) is evaluated over a flow path length short enough to assume that the gas density remains constant, it can be shown that:

$$(\Delta p)_g = \frac{0.0188 \text{ G cos } \phi \Delta L}{T} \frac{p}{z}$$
 (8.3)

where:

G = gas specific gravity (Air = 1) dimensionless

 φ = deviation of the flow path from the vertical, degrees

 ΔL = flow path length, feet

p = average pressure in length ΔL , psia

T = average temperature in length ΔL , degrees Rankine

z = gas deviation factor at p & T, dimensionless

8.3 Friction Term

The change in pressure due to viscous effects is a measure of the mechanical energy transformed into

heat by frictional resistance. This change due to frictional resistance over the flow path is:

$$(\Delta p)_{f} = \int dp_{f}$$
 (8.4)

If Eq. (8.4) is integrated over a flow path length short enough to assume that the gas density remains constant, it can be shown that:

$$(\Delta p)_{f} = 0.0000316 \text{ F} \frac{GTz}{p} \frac{Q^{2}}{A^{2}}$$
 (8.5)

where:

F = a dimensionless factor that is dependent on the flow geometry.

Q = the flow rate in MMSCF/D at standard conditions of 14.7 psia and 60°F.

A = cross-sectional area, sq ft.

In the use of Eq. (8.5) the flow path should be divided into segments such that the pressure drop across a segment does not exceed ten percent of the upstream pressure with a minimum value of 10 psi. The determination of the dimensionless factor F is discussed below for a variety of flow geometries.

Circular Pipe Flow

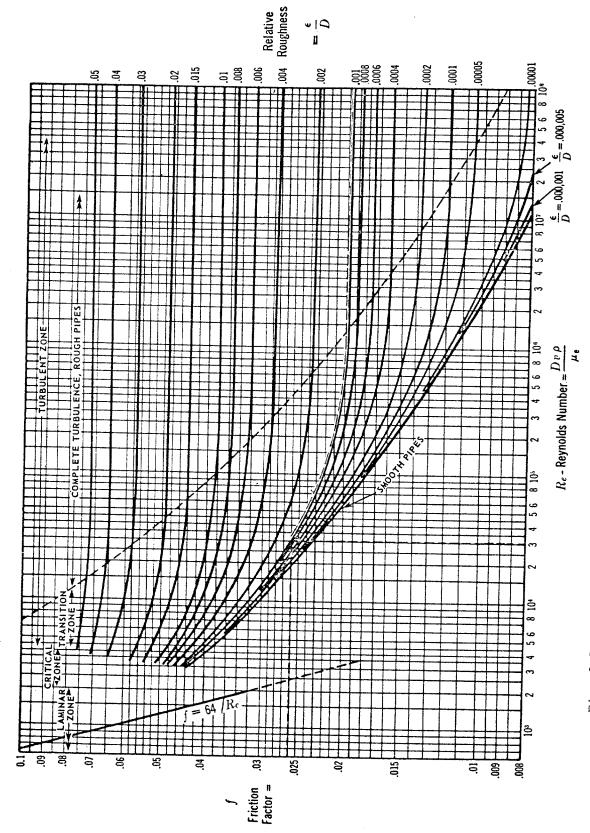
For flow, through a circular pipe the factor F can be expressed as

$$F = f(\Delta L/D)$$
 (8.6)

where f is a dimensionless friction factor and D is the internal pipe diameter in feet. For completely turbulent flow or in the transition zone between turbulent and laminar flow, the friction factor f can be computed using the Colebrook equation (Ref. 8.3).

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{f}} = -2 \log_{10} \left[0.269 \frac{\varepsilon}{D} + \frac{2.51}{R_{e} \sqrt{f}} \right]$$
 (8.7)

where ϵ is the absolute roughness in feet and $^R{}_{\mbox{e}}$ is Reynold's Number, dimensionless. The Reynolds Number can be computed from



Friction factors for pipe flow. (After Crane, Ref. 8.4.) 8,1, Fig.

$$R_{e} = 1684 \frac{G Q}{u D} \tag{8.8}$$

where μ is the gas viscosity in centipoises at prevailing temperature and pressure and Q is the flow rate in MMSCF/D. Equation (8.7) has been solved for the friction factor f over a wide range of the parameters. The results have been plotted and are shown in Fig. 8.1 which can be used to determine the friction factor for any set of flow parameters.

Annular Flow

For flow through an annulus an equivalent diameter is computed for the annulus using the "hydraulic radius" concept. The equivalent diameter for an annulus is:

$$D_{e} = D_{o} - D_{i} \tag{8.9}$$

where $^{D}_{e}$, $^{D}_{o}$ and $^{D}_{i}$ are the equivalent, outer and inner diameters, respectively, expressed in feet. Equation (8.5) can be used to compute pressure changes that occur during annular flow. The factor, F, is:

$$F = f (\Delta L/D_{\rho})$$
 (8.10)

The cross sectional area is calculated by:

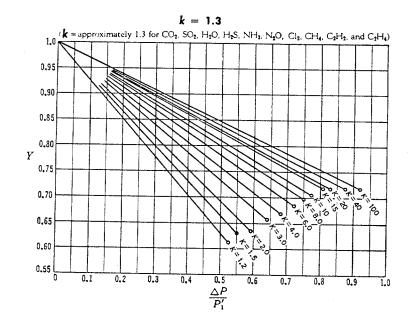
$$A = \pi (D_0^2 - D_i^2) / 4 \tag{8.11}$$

The absolute roughness of the annulus can be determined from Ref. 8.5,

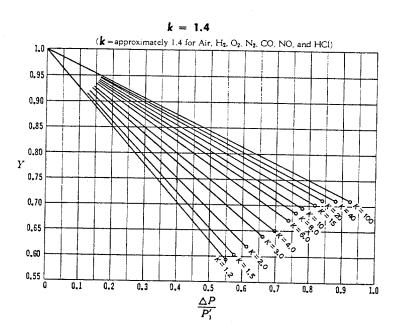
$$\varepsilon_{e} = \varepsilon_{o} \left(\frac{D_{o}}{D_{o} + D_{i}} \right) + \varepsilon_{i} \left(\frac{D_{i}}{D_{o} + D_{o}} \right)$$
 (8.12)

where ε_e , ε_o and ε_i are the absolute roughness in feet for the annulus, outer wall and inner wall, respectively. The relative roughness to be used in Eq. (8.7) or Fig. 8.1 for ε/D for determining the friction factor f for annular flow is:

Relative Roughness =
$$\epsilon_e/D_e$$
 (8.13)



For Sonic Velocity $k = 1.3$						
К	$\frac{\Delta P}{P'_1}$	Y				
1.2	.525	.612				
1.5	.550	.631				
2.0	.593	.635				
3	.642	.658				
4	.678	.670				
6	.722	.685				
8	.750	.698				
10	.773	.705				
15	.807	.718				
20	.831	.718				
40	.877	.718				
100	.920	.718				



For Sonic Velocity $k = 1.4$						
K	$\frac{\Delta P}{P'_1}$	Y				
1.2	.552	.588				
1.5	.576	.606				
2.0	.612	.622				
3	.662	.639				
4	.697	.649				
6	.737	.671				
8	.762	.685				
10	.784	.695				
15	.818	.702				
20	.839	.710				
40	.883	.710				
00	.926	.710				

Limiting Factors

Fig. 8.2. Net expansion factors for flow of gases to large flow areas. (After Crane, Ref. 8.4.)

Flow Through Valves and Fittings

For flow through valves and fittings the factor, $\mbox{\bf F}\,\mbox{\bf ,}$ is:

$$F = K/Y^2 \tag{8.14}$$

where K is a dimensionless resistance coefficient for a specific valve or fitting and Y a net expansion factor, also dimensionless.

The resistance coefficient, K, for valves and fittings must be determined from flow tests. This information is usually available from the manufacturer of the valve or fitting. The net expansion factor, Y, compensates for the changes in fluid properties due to expansion of the fluid caused by a sudden change in pressure. Net expansion factors can be obtained from Fig. 8.2.

Other Resistances to Flow

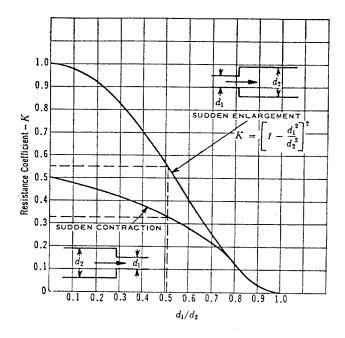
In addition to the resistances of valves and fittings, discussed above, there are changes in pressure due to sudden enlargement and sudden contraction. Also, when a fluid enters or leaves an open end pipe, there are entrance and exit resistances. The changes in pressure for these conditions can be computed using Eqs. (8.5) and (8.14). Expansion factors Y can be obtained from Fig. 8.2 and resistance coefficients K can be obtained from Fig. 8.3. Note that the values for the resistance coefficient K given in Fig. 8.3 for sudden enlargement or sudden contraction are based on velocity in the smaller pipe.

8.4 Kinetic Energy Term

Ordinarily, in problems involving flow of compressible fluids in a pipe, the change in pressure due to changes in kinetic energy are neglected. The justification for this is that the kinetic energy term is usually small compared to the viscous effects term. The exception is when flow is taking place through a nozzle or orifice. The equation for computing changes in pressure due to flow through a nozzle or orifice is:

$$(\Delta p)_{j} = 1.049 \frac{GT}{d_{o}} + \frac{1}{Y^{2}C^{2}} \frac{1}{\tilde{p}_{i}} Q^{2}$$
 (8.15)

where $(\Delta p)_j$ is the difference in psi between the upstream and downstream pressures, p_1 is the upstream pressure, d_0 is the throat diameter of the nozzle or orifice in inches and C is a dimensionless nozzle or orifice coefficient. Q as elsewhere in this section is in MMSCF/D. Values for flow coefficients, C, can be obtained from Fig. 8.4 and values for net expansion factors can be obtained from Fig. 8.5. The solution of Eq. (8.15) requires an iterative procedure as will be illustrated in the example calculation.



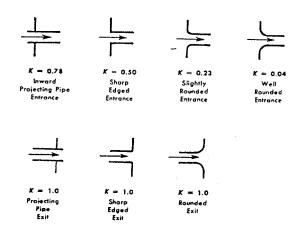


Fig. 8.3. Resistance coefficients for sudden enlargements and contractions (upper) and for exit and entrance effects (lower). (After Crane, Ref. 8.4).

8.5 Limiting Flow of Compressible Fluids

Implicit in Eq. (8.5) and (8.15) for computing pressure changes due to viscous effects and kinetic energy changes is the gas velocity v. The gas velocity can be related to the gas flow rate Q in MMSCF/D at standard conditions of 14.7 psia and $60^{\circ}F$ by:

$$v = 0.329 \frac{OT}{A} \frac{z}{p}$$
 (8.16)

However, the velocity cannot exceed the sonic velocity \mathbf{v}_{s} of the fluid, which is given by:

$$v_s = 41.43 \left[\frac{kTz}{G}\right]^{0.5}$$
 (8.17)

where k is the ratio of the specific heat at constant pressure to that at constant volume, dimensionless. The pressure $P_{\rm S}$ at the point in the flow path where sonic velocity is reached can be computed by equating Eqs. (8.16) and (8.17). This equality can be solved to obtain a formula for $p_{\rm S}$, or:

$$p_{s} = \frac{0.00789 \, Q}{A} \left[\frac{GTz}{k} \right]^{0.5}$$
 (8.18)

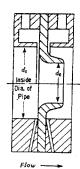
The point at which sonic velocity occurs in a flow system is usually in a nozzle, an orifice, a valve or fitting, a sudden contraction, or where the system exits to a much larger flow area, e.g., to the atmosphere. Ratios of pressure drop to upstream pressure above which sonic velocity is reached are tabulated in Fig. 8.2. These apply to valves, fittings sudden contractions and exits to much larger areas. Limiting values of the ratios of downstream pressure to upstream pressure for nozzles and Venturi tubes are given in Fig. 8.6.

8.6 Calculation Procedure

The geometry of the flow path in an uncontrolled gas well can be extremely complex. Flow may be occurring through the drill string, the annulus, or both. Several changes in cross sectional area may be present, and a portion of the well may be inclined significantly from the vertical. Multiple valves and restrictions may be present and sonic choking is possible at these restrictions as well as at the surface. The best calculation procedure to use depends upon the flow geometry involved. However, the recommended basic approach is as follows:

- 1. Assume a gas flow rate, Q.
- 2. Starting with a known pressure $^{p}_{O}$ at location $^{L}_{O}$, select a pressure increment $_{\Delta P}$. Take $_{\Delta P}$ < 10% of $^{p}_{O}$, with a minimum value of 10 psi.
- 3. Calculate the average pressure and average temperature for the increment.

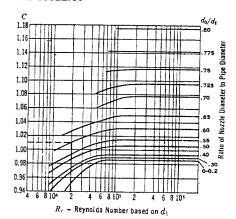
Flow Coefficient C for Nozzles⁷



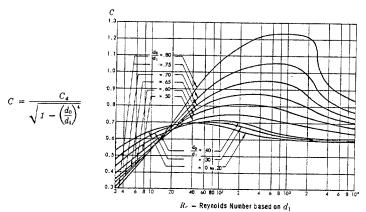
Data from Regeln fuer die Durchflussmessung mit genormten Duesen und Blenden. VDI-Verlag G. mb. H., Berlin, SNW, 7, 1937. Published as Technical Memorandum 952 by the NACA.

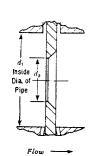
$$C = \frac{C_d}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{d_0}{d_1}\right)}}$$

Example: The flow coefficient C for a diameter ratio d_0/d_1 of 0.60 at a Reynolds number of 20,000 (2 x 104) equals 1.01.



Flow Coefficient C for Square Edged Orifices 7, 17





 $C = \frac{C_d}{\sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{d_0}{d_1}\right)^2}}$

Lower chart data from Regeln fuer die Durchflussmessung mit genormtem Duesen und Blenden. VDI-Verlag G. m.b.H., Berlin, SNW. 7, 1937. Published as Technical Memorandum 952 by the NACA.

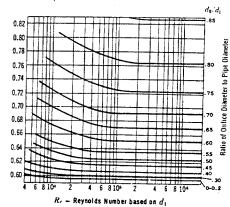


Fig. 8.4. Flow coefficients for nozzles and orifices. (After Crane, Ref. 8.4.)

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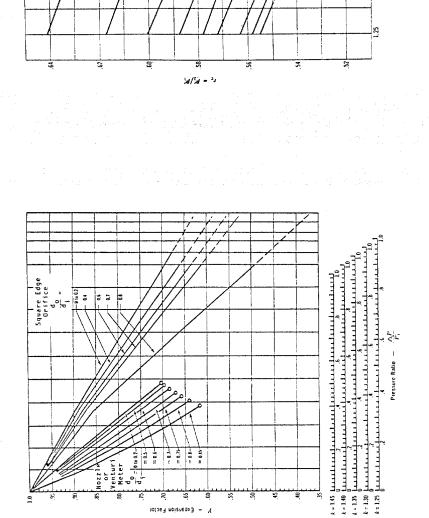


Fig. 8.5. Net expansion factors for compressible flow through orifices and nozzles. (After Crane, Ref. 8.4).

Fig. 8.6. Critical pressure ratios for sonic flow through Venturi tubes and orifices. (After Crane, Ref. 8.4).

 $k = c_p/c_p$

- 4. Determine the gas deviation factor, z, and the gas viscosity, μ , at conditions of average pressure and temperature.
- 5. Calculate the flowing pressure gradient, dp/dL, for the increment using Eqs. (8.3) and (8.5).
- 6. Calculate the length increment corresponding to the selected pressure increment, $\Delta L = \Delta p/(dp/dL).$
- 7. Set $p = p_0 + \Sigma \Delta p$ and $L = L_0 + \Sigma \Delta L$.
- 8. If $\Sigma\Delta L$ is less than the total flow path length repeat the procedure from step 2 using p and L as the starting pressure and location and taking $\Delta p < 10\%$ of p with a minimum value of 10 psi. If $\Sigma\Delta L$ is greater than the total flow path length, interpolate between the last two values of L to obtain the pressure at the end of the flow path.
- 9. Assume a new value for the flow rate and repeat the calculations. Continue until sufficient data is obtained to define the flow string resistance curve, i.e., a plot of flow rate versus flowing bottom hole pressure.

Pressure drops across valves, fittings, or restrictions must be accounted for in the calculation procedure. Also, it will be necessary to check each exit, valve, fitting or restriction to see if sonic velocity has been reached. Once the flow rate is high enough for sonic flow to be achieved at some point, the starting point for the calculation procedure can be moved from the surface to that point. The pressure at the point where sonic velocity has been reached can be computed using Eq. (8.17).

8.7 <u>Illustrative Example</u>

As an illustrative example consider a gas blowout which occurred during drilling operations. The blow-out occurred when a drill pipe safety valve failed after the well had kicked. When attempts to stab the Kelly into the safety valve were not successful, the rig personnel evacuated the rig floor, and the well blew out.

The well geometry associated with the blowout is shown in Fig. 8.7. Based on the ball position of the drill pipe safety valve, the area of the opening through which the gas was blowing was computed to be 1.2 sq in.

The valve body had a diameter of 3.25 inches. The bit at the bottom of the drill string contained three 13/32 inch nozzles.

The estimated formation pressure at the time of the blowout was 8000 psia, based on the mud density while drilling and an assumed 750 psia underbalance. The estimated formation temperature is $250^{\circ}F$ ($710^{\circ}R$), which is also assumed to be the gas temperature throughout the flow string. Figure 8.8 provides values for the gas deviation factor and viscosity of methane at $250^{\circ}F$, as functions of pressure. The ratio of the specific heats k is taken as 1.3.

8.8 Solution of Illustrative Example

The flowing bottom hole pressure will be computed at flow rate increments of 10 MMSCF/D, starting with 10 MMSCF/D, until the bottom hole pressure exceeds the estimated formation pressure, 8000 psia. The gas temperature is assumed constant over the flow path and equal to the estimated bottom hole temperature of 250°F. Completely turbulent flow is assumed for the start of all calculations and is verified by computing Reynolds Numbers where appropriate.

The calculations are made in five steps, to find the following:

- Pressure at the downstream side of the safety valve.
- Pressure at the upstream side of the safety valve, also the pressure at the top of the drill pipe.
- 3. Pressure at the bottom of the drill pipe.
- 4. Pressure at the bottom of the drill collars.
- 5. Pressure drop across the bit nozzles, and then the flowing bottom hole pressure.

Step 1. Surface Pressure

The first step is to obtain a starting pressure, in this case the downstream pressure at the safety valve. If flow through the safety valve is subsonic the exit pressure will be atmospheric. If the flow is sonic the pressure will be greater than atmospheric. As the resistance coefficient K for the valve is unknown, the

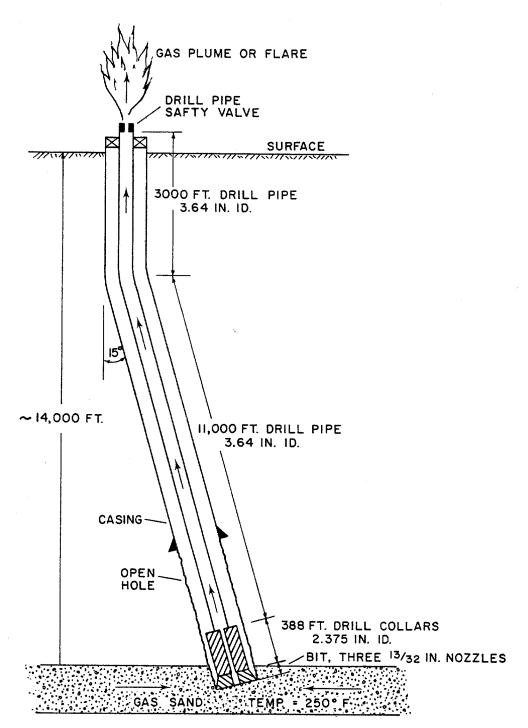
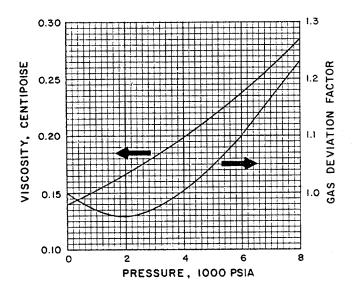


Fig. 8.7. Sketch showing the well geometry for the example of Sec. 8.7.

valve is treated as a square edged crifice whose area is 1.2 square inches whose equivalent throat diameter is

$$d_0 = \sqrt{(4)(1.2)/\pi} = 1.24$$
 inches



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Fig. 8.8. Gas deviation factors and visicosities for methane (G = 0.55) at 250° F.

Assuming subsonic flow for which the well head pressure is atmospheric, taken as 14.7 psia, the theoretical velocity computed by Eq. (8.16) is

$$v = \frac{(0.329)(10)(250+460)}{1.2/144} \frac{1}{14.7} = 19,069 \text{ ft/sec}$$

But by Eq. (8.17) sonic velocity for methane gas in the valve is:

$$v_s = 41.43 \left[\frac{(1.3)(710)z}{0.55} \right]^{0.5} = 1697 [z]^{0.5}$$
 ft/sec

As $z \le 1.0$ the maximum velocity through the valve is less than 1697 ft/sec, and as the calculated subsonic value is much larger, 19,069 ft/sec, flow through the valve is sonic. The pressure at the valve exit can be estimated using Eq. (8.18).

$$p_s = \frac{0.00789 \times 10}{1.2/144} \left[\frac{(0.55)(710)(z)}{1.3} \right]^{0.5} = 164 z^{0.5} \text{ psia}$$

Table I shows the solution by iteration using Fig. 8.8 for values of z, to obtain a downstream pressure at the safety valve of 164 psia.

Table I

Trial	p _s	z(Fig.8.8)	164√z
1	14.7	1	164
_ 2	164	` 1	164

Step 2. Upstream Pressure at the Safety Valve

Using a downstream pressure of 164 psia the upstream pressure at the safety valve is next computed. To do this, first calculate the ratio of the orifice diameter to the pipe diameter as

$$d_0/d_1 = 1.24/3.64 = 0.341$$

From Fig. 8.4 the flow coefficient C of the orifice is 0.603, and using this value in Eq. (8.15) the pressure drop across the valve is $\frac{1}{2}$

$$(\Delta p)_{j} = (p_{1}-164)$$

$$= \frac{(1.049)(0.55)(710)}{(1.24)^{4}} \cdot \frac{1}{(0.603)^{2}Y^{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{p_{1}} \cdot 10^{2}$$

$$(p_{1}-164)p_{1} = \frac{47651}{Y^{2}}$$

This quadratic equation is solved by iteration as shown in Table II, using Fig. 8.5 to obtain values for Y. This gives a value of 360 psia for p_1 , the pressure just upstream of the valve, at the top of the drill pipe.

Table II

Trial	Y(Fig.8.5)	<u> P1</u>	Δp	<u>Δ</u> þ/p ₁
1	1	315	151	0.48
2	0.84	354	190	0.54
3	0.82	360	196	0.54
4	0.82	360		

Step 3. Pressure at the Bottom of the Drill Pipe

Next total flowing pressure gradient at any point in the drill string is determined by combining Eqs. (8.3), (8.5), and (8.6)

$$\frac{\Delta p}{\Delta L} = \frac{0.0188 \text{ G} \cos \phi}{T} \frac{p}{z} + 0.0000316 \frac{f}{D} \frac{GTz}{p} \frac{Q^2}{A^2}$$

From 0 to 3000 feet, the hole is vertical, $cos\phi$ = 1 and the total gradient is

$$\frac{\Delta p}{\Delta L} = \frac{(0.0188)(0.55)(1)}{710} \frac{p}{z}$$

$$+ \frac{(0.0000316)(0.55)(710)(10)^{2}}{[3.64/12][(\pi)(3.64)^{2}/(4)(144)]^{2}} \frac{fz}{p}$$

$$= 1.45 \times 10^{-5} \frac{p}{z} + 778.982 \frac{fz}{p}$$

An absolute roughness of 0.00065 inches is commonly used for drill pipe. This yields a relative roughness of

$$e/d = 0.00065/3.64 = 0.000179$$

The Reynolds Number calculated using Eq. (8.8) is

$$R_e = \frac{(1684)(0.55)(10)}{\mu (3.64/12)} = \frac{30534}{\mu}$$

The pressure at 3000 feet (measured depth) can be determined by starting with a surface pressure of 360 psia and numerically integrating down to 3000 feet. The numerical integration is shown in Table III.

Table III

ran din i		Committee Control Co.	a an include a special device	Acres 1908 September 1					
===	Δp<0.lp	p _{avg}	Z	<u> </u>	R _e	f	Δρ/ΔL	ΔL	Depth
360	30		0.99	0.014	2,181,000	0.0138	0.034	882	0
390	30	405	0.99	0.014	2,181,000	0.0138	0.032	938	882
420	40	440	0.99	0.014	2,181,000	0.0138	0.031	1290	1820
460									3110

Interpolating to find the pressure at 3000 ft,

$$p_{3000} = 460 - \frac{40}{1290}(3110-3000) = 456 \text{ psia}$$

From 3000 to 14,000 feet (measured depth) the hole deviates 15 degrees from the vertical and the flowing pressure gradient at any point is given by

$$\frac{\Delta p}{\Delta L} = (1.456 \times 10^{-5}) (\cos 15^{\circ}) \frac{p}{z} + 778.982 \frac{fz}{p}$$
$$= 1.406 \times 10^{-5} \frac{p}{z} + 778.982 \frac{fz}{p}$$

The pressure at 14,000 feet (measured depth) can be determined by starting with a pressure of 456 psia at 3000 feet, and numerically integrating down to 14,000 feet. The numerical integration is shown in Table IV. Interpolating to find the pressure at 14,000 ft,

$$p_{14,000} = 750 - \frac{20}{800} (14,051-14,000) = \frac{749 \text{ psia}}{200}$$

The pressure drop due to the sudden enlargement at the top of the collars is computed using Eqs. (8.5) and (8.15) and Figs. 8.2, 8.3, and 8.8.

$$\Delta p = p_1 - p_2 = 0.0000316 \frac{K}{Y^2} \frac{GTZ}{p_1} \frac{Q^2}{A^2}$$

Table IV

p	p≤0.1p	pava	7		R _e				
<u>- </u>	Р	avs	Z	<u> </u>	e	<u>f</u>	$\Delta p/\Delta L$	ΔL	Depth
456	44	478	0.99	0.014	2,181,000	0.0138	0.029	1517	3,000
500	50	525	0.99	0.014	2,181,000	0.0138	0.028	1786	4,517
550	54	577	0.99	0.014	2,181,000	0.0138	0.027	2000	6,303
604	60	634	0.99	0.014	2,181,000	0.0138	0.026	2308	8,303
664	66	697	0.98	0.014	2,181,000	0.0138	0.025	2640	10,611
730	20	740	0.98	0.014	2,181,000	0.0138	0.025	800	13,251
750									14,051

$$(p_1-749)p_1 = \frac{(0.0000316)(0.55)(710)(10)^2}{[(\pi)(2.375)^2/(4)(144)]^2} \frac{Kz}{Y^2}$$

$$= 1304 Kz/Y^2$$

The diameter ratio is

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$$d_1/d_2 = 2.375/3.64 = 0.652$$

$$(p_1-749)p_1 = (1304)(0.32) \frac{z}{Y^2} = 417 \frac{z}{Y^2}$$

This expression is solved by iteration using Figs. 8.2 and 8.8 as shown in Table V to give a value of 749.55 psia, say 750 psia for p .

Table V

Trial	z(Fig.8.8)	Y(Fig.8.2)	р1	∆ p	Δp/p ₁
1	1	1	749.56	0.56	0.0007
2	0.98	1	749.55	0.55	0.0007

Step 4. Pressure at the Bottom of the Drill Collars

Proceeding with the pressure change calculations in the drill collars, the Reynolds Number by Eq. (8.8) is

$$R_{e} = \frac{(1684)(0.55)(10)}{\mu(2.375/12)} = \frac{46797}{\mu}$$

For an absolute roughness of 0.00065 in and 2.375 in I.D. for the drill collars, the relative roughness is 0.000274. From 14,000 to 14,388 feet (measured depth) the flowing pressure gradient in the drill collars is calculated using Eq. (8.3), (8.5) and (8.6)

$$\frac{\Delta p}{\Delta L} = 1.406 \times 10^{-5} \frac{p}{z} + 6587.438 \frac{fz}{p}$$

The pressure at 14,388 feet (measured depth) is determined by starting with a pressure of 750 psia at 14,000 feet and numerically integrating down to 14,388 feet. The results of these numerical integrations are shown in Table VI.

Table VI

	<u>Δp≤0.lp</u>	P _{avg}	Z	μ	R _e	f	Δρ/ΔL	ΔL	Depth
750	20	760	0.98	0.015	3,119,800	0.0145	0.134	149	14,000
770	20	780	0.98	0.015	3,119,800	0.0145	0.131	153	14,149
790	20	800	0.98	0.015	3,119,800	0.0145	0.128	156	14,302
810									14,458

Interpolating, the pressure at the bottom of the drill collars is

$$p_{14,388} = 810 - \frac{(14,458-14,388)}{156} 20 = 801 \text{ psia}$$

Step 5. Pressure Drop Through the Bit Nozzles

The final step is to compute the pressure drop across the bit. If sonic flow is taking place through the three 13/32 inch nozzles the downstream pressure can be computed using Eq. (8.18). The area A of the three bit nozzles is

$$A = \frac{(3)(3.14)(13/32)^2}{(4)(144)} = 0.0027 \text{ ft}^2$$

and the downstream pressure for 10 MMSCF/D is

$$P_{s} = \frac{(0.00789)(10)}{(0.0027)} \left[\frac{(0.55)(710)z}{(1.3)} \right]^{0.5}$$

$$p_s = 506 z^{0.5}$$

Solving for p_s by iteration $p_s = 501$ psia.

Because this pressure is less than the actual down-stream pressure (801 psia) the flow through the nozzles is subsonic. Since the flow through the nozzles is sub-

sonic the assumption that sonic flow occurred only at the safety valve is correct. The pressure drop across the bit can be computed using Eq. (8.15) and Figs. 8.4 and 8.5, assuming the flow rate through each nozzle is 10/3 MMSCF/D, or

$$(\Delta p)_{j} = (p_{bh} - 801) = \frac{(1.049)(0.55)(710)}{(13/32)^{4}} \frac{1}{Y^{2}C^{2}} \frac{1}{p_{bh}} (10/3)^{2}$$

from which,

$$(p_{bh}-801)p_{bh} = \frac{167102}{Y^2C^2}$$

The diameter ratio

$$d_0/d_1 \simeq 0$$

From Fig. 8.4 the flow coefficient C for the nozzles is 0.985, hence

$$(p_{bh}-801)p_{bh} = \frac{172230}{Y^2}$$

This equation is solved by iteration as shown in Table VII using Fig. 8.5 for values of Y and gives a value of 1028 psia for pressure below the bit, i.e., the flowing bottom hole pressure.

Bottom Hole Pressures for Other Flow Rates

In order to determine the flow string resistance curve, the five step calculation procedure is repeated at incremental values of assumed flow rates and the

Table VII

Trial	Y(Fig.8.5)	p _{bh}	Δр	Δp/p _{bh}
1	1	977	176	0.18
2	0.89	1015	214	0.21
3	0.87	1023	222	0.22
. 4	0.86	1028	227	0.22

flowing bottom hole pressure calculated for each flow rate. Table VIII gives the calculated pressures on the upstream side of the safety valve, on the downstream side of the bit and finally the bottom hole pressure. Figure 8.9 is a plot of the flow string resistance curve for this example. It indicates a maximum possible flow rate of 79 MMSCF/D, i.e. when the flowing bottom hole pressure is equal to the estimated static formation pressure (8000 psia). There is, of course, a pressure drop in the formation as the gas flows to the bore hole. If, for example, the formation pressure drop is 2000 psi, the blowout rate is about 60 MMSCF/D.

Table VIII

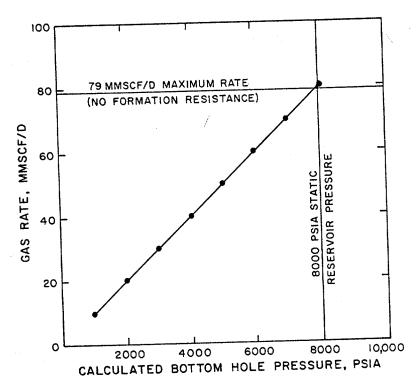
Q MMSCF/D	Pressure Upstream of Safety Valve	Pressure Downstream of Bit (psia)	Bottom Hole Pressure (psia)
10	360	798	1028
20	725	1505	1984
30	1087	2207	2944
40	1450	3010	3969
50	1790	3710	4933
60	2130	4490	5950
70	2497	5277	6953
80	2860	6340	8156

8.9 Critique of Computational Procedure

The three parameters that are not known accurately in the calculation procedure are the absolute roughness of the drill pipe, the mean temperature of the flowing gas, and the gas gravity. To determine the sensitivity of the computational procedure to changes in these parameters, an error analysis was made at a flow rate of 60 MMSCF/D.

If the absolute roughness is taken as 0.0065 inches instead of 0.00065 inches (a 900% increase) the computed bottom hole pressure is 6844 psia instead of 5950 psia. This is a 15 per cent increase in bottom hole pressure.

If the mean temperature is taken as $150^{\circ}F$ instead of $250^{\circ}F$ (a 40% decrease) the computed bottom hole pressure is 5657 psia instead of 5950 psia. This is a 5 percent decrease in bottom hole pressure.



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Fig. 8.9. Flow string resistance curve for the example of Secs. 8.7 and 8.8.

If the gas gravity is taken as 0.7 instead of 0.55 (a 27% increase) the computed bottom hole pressure is 6964 psia instead of 5950 psia. This is a 15 percent increase in bottom hole pressure.

The above analysis indicates the importance of an accurate determination of gas gravity. Though not as important as gas gravity, a reasonably accurate estimate of the mean temperature is needed. The least important parameter is the absolute roughness. Any reasonable estimate of absolute roughness should suffice.

Other factors that can affect the accuracy of the computational procedure are the presence of water and/or consensate. The presence of liquid will cause the bottom hole pressure determined using the computational procedure for a given flow rate to be too low. This means that the flow string resistance curve of Fig. 7.1 would shift to the right. Hence, for a given bottom hole pressure, the two-phase flow rate will be less than that for the case of dry gas.

The difficulty in determining an accurate geometry of the gas flow path can have a major effect on the accuracy of the computational procedure. This is

especially troublesome when flow is in the annulus or downhole tubulars have failed. Every effort should be made to make an accurate determination of the gas flow path.

8.10 Conclusions and Recommendations

If an accurate determination of the gas flow path has been made and reasonably accurate values of absolute roughness, mean temperature of the flowing gas, and the gas gravity are available, the computational procedure presented in this chapter should yield a flow string resistance that is within 20 percent of the actual value for a given flow rate. The procedure is very tedious and time consuming and should be programmed for use on a high-speed digital computer.

SECTION 9 CROSS PLOTS OF FORMATION AND FLOW STRING RESISTANCES

9.1 Introduction

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The methods for calculating formation and flow string resistances have been discussed in Sections 7 and 8, respectively, where it was shown that crossplots of these two curves can be used to estimate blowout rates. It was pointed out in Sec. 7.4 that in most cases the major cause for uncertainty in the formation resistance curves was caused by uncertainties in formation permeability and thickness. The product of permeability and formation thickness is called formation capacity, or simply capacity. It is usually expressed in units of millidarcy-feet (md-ft). In this section special consideration is given to the effect of uncertainty in formation capacity on estimated blowout rates.

The theories and calculations of Sections 7 and 8 also provide the insight for the generalizations

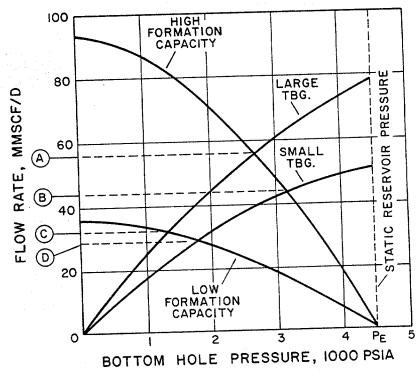


Fig. 9.1. Generalized formation and flow string resistance curves showing the effects of formation capacity and effective flow string diameter.

expressed by Fig. 9.1. As would be expected, maximum blowout rates occur for higher formation capacities and larger effective flow string diameters, point A. Conversely, also to be expected, low formation capacities and small effective flow string diameters cause lower blowout rates, as at point D.

Figure 9.1 should not be used except for generalization as indicated above. Instead, for each blow-out similar curves should be calculated as shown in Sections 7 and 8.

9.2 Effect of Formation Capacity

The formation resistance curves of Fig. 9.2 are based on Eq. (7.2), the steady-state formula for gas flow. Equations (7.3), (7.4) and (7.7) may also be used, as appropriate. Example 9.1 shows the calculation of a point on the 2000 md-ft formation resistance curve, i.e., 233 MMSCF/D for a flowing bottom hole

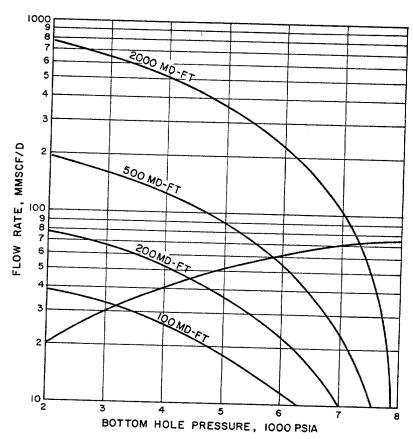


Fig. 9.2. Formation resistance curves for capacities of 100, 200, 500 and 2000 md-ft.

pressure of 6000 psia.

Example 9.1

Data:

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$$q_{sc} = \frac{703 \text{ kh}(p_e^2 - p_w^2)}{\mu Tz \ln(r_e/r_w)}$$

$$q_{sc} = \frac{703x2.0x(8000^2-6000^2)}{0.024x710x1.11x9}$$

$$q_{sc} = 233 \text{ MMSCF/D}$$

The flow string resistance curve of fig. 9.2 is the one calculated for the base condition of the example of Secs. (8.7) and (8.8) and shown in Fig. 8.9. Because of the small uncertainty in the flow string resistance curve, at least with respect to the large uncertainty in the formation resistance curve, only one flow string resistance curve is shown in Fig. 9.2.

(2.0 darcy-ft)

Figure 9.2 shows the uncertainty in the estimated blowout rate caused by uncertainty in the formation capacity. However, it is noted in this example that a twenty-fold range in formation capacity (100 to 2000 md-ft) causes only a little more than a two-fold change in the blowout rate, i.e., from 72 MMSCF/D for 2000 md-ft to 32 MMSCF/D for 100 md-ft. In many, if not most cases, the uncertainty in the formation capacity should be considerably less than a twenty-fold range, certainly where there are producing wells in the reservoir, drilled either prior to or after the blowout.

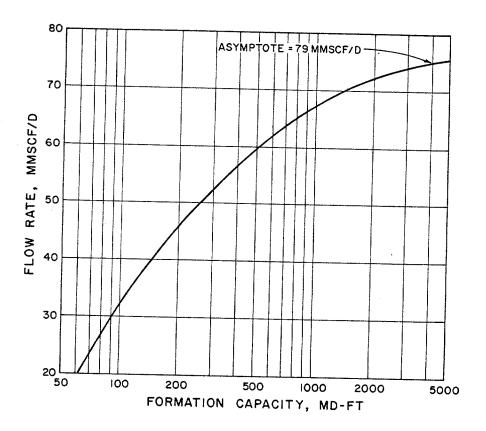


Fig. 9.3. Blowout rate as a function of formation capacity.

Figure 9.3 is a cross-plot of the data of Fig. 9.2, and further illustrates the effect of formation capacity in the estimated blowout rate, for a particular flow string resistance curve.

9.3 Cratered Wells and Underwater Blowouts

Of the several methods presented only that of cross-plotting calculated formation and flow string resistances does not depend upon some sort(s) of measurement(s). This method is therefore applicable to cratered wells and underwater blowouts but with the additional uncertainty in the pressure at the outlet end of the flow string, now no longer atmospheric. Use of the method assuming atmospheric pressure at the outlet will provide estimates of the maximum flow rate. Also, as explained below, considerable increases in outlet pressure above atmospheric pressure cause relatively small reductions in the flow rates.

For gas flow in vertical pipes Smith's formula (Ref. 9.1) may be expressed as

$$q_{SC} = C[p_w^2 - e^S p_0^2]^{0.5} \dots (9.1)$$

The following application of Eq. (9.1) will serve to define its terms and units.

Data:

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X = 8000 feet, elevation difference between pressure points p and po.

 p_e = 4000 psia, external reservoir pressure

 $T = 620^{\circ}$ Rankine, average temperature in the flow string.

z = 1.00, average gas deviation factor for gas in the flow string.

G = 0.70, gas specific gravity (air = 1).

S = 0.0375 G X/T z

 $S = 0.0375 \times 0.70 \times 8000/620 \times 1.00$

S = 0.34 and $e^{S} = 2.718^{0.34} = 1.40$

 $p_e = 4000 \text{ psia}$ Case I

 $p_{w} = 3000$ psia, flowing bottom hole pressure

 $p_0 = 14.7$ psia, flow string outlet pressure

 $q_{SC} = C[3000^2 - 1.40 \times 14.7^2]^{0.5}$

 $q_{sc} = 3000 C$

and for

p_o = 1,000 psia

 $q_{sc} = C[3000^2 - 1.40 \times 1000^2]^{0.5}$

 $q_{sc} = 2757 C$

Flow Reduction = $\frac{3000 - 2757}{3000}$ x 100 = 8%

 $p_e = 4000 \text{ psia}$ Case II

p_w = 2000 psia

 $p_{O} = 14.7 \text{ psia}$

 $q_{sc} = C[2000^2 - 1.40 \times 14.7^2]^{0.5}$

q_{s·c} = 2000 C

and for

p_o = 700 psia

 $q_{sc} = C[2000^2 - 1.40 \times 700^2]^{0.5}$

 $q_{sc} = 1820 C$

Flow Reduction = $\frac{2000 - 1820}{2000} = 9\%$

The above example illustrates the relatively small effect a substantial increase in outlet pressure has on the flow rate. It is noted that a blowout from a sea floor assembly at a depth of 1500 feet has an outlet pressure near 700 psia. For a more precise evaluation of the effect of outlet pressure on flow rate, the method of Section 8 should be used.

SECTION 10 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER INVESTIGATION

10.1 Introduction

The foregoing sections have presented the state of the art for determining gas flow rates and vented volumes during blowouts. Such presentations naturally evoke thought on further work which might improve the determinations. Suggestions for further work are of two kinds: those which seek to improve or refine current technology and those which propose new technology, either innovative or adapted from other areas of technology.

All of the methods presented in this report have been developed for calculations on engineering problems other than the blowout problem, and have therefore received periodic improvement and refinement. In any event the precision of these methods as applicable to the gas well blowout problem is more than adequate because of the complex nature of the problem and because of the unavailability and/or imprecision of some of the data. Therefore, improvement in the determination of vented gas volumes lies in the development of new technology.

10.2 Suggestions for New Technology

Among the suggestions received or conceived during these investigations there are four which appear to merit further consideration. No claim is made for an in-depth look into the feasibility of these suggested methods, which are briefly discussed in the following.

10.2.1 Heat Flux

Where blowing gas wells have been ignited, assuming complete combustion, the heat flux from the well is the product of the gas flow rate and the heating value of the gas. If the heat flux can be measured, in BTU/day for example, then by dividing into it the measured or estimated heating value of the gas, in BTU/SCF, the flow rate in SCF/day is obtained.

The heat flux is a combination of radiation and convection. It is possible that aerial surveys above and around the burning plume using suitable measuring devices could provide data for determining the total heat flux. To handle the problem of incomplete

combustion it is suggested that suitably taken samples can be analyzed for carbon, carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide and hydrocarbons.

The most attractive feature of this proposed method is that it can be applied to all burning gas wells and, more important, it does not require operations at or near the well location. It is therefore of interest for offshore blowouts where operations at or near the wellhead are usually precluded.

10.2.2 Bullet Trajectory

A suggestion of the possible use of bullet trajectory was received from the Research Program, Branch of Marine Oil and Gas Operations of the Geological Survey. The basic idea is similar to that of estimating the blowout rate from the deflection of a sledge hammer passed through the flow stream (Section 1.2).

In this proposed method, the basic measurement would by the angular deflection of a bullet of known velocity when fired through the center of the flow stream. Although some experimentation might be required to develop this method, it is likely that there is a great deal in the relevant literature which would shed considerable light on this measurement.

This method is also attractive in that it does not require operations at or very near the well head. Although apparently less adaptable to offshore gas blowouts than those on land, innovative technology might prove otherwise.

10.2.3 Other Measurement Technology

Consideration has been given to other measurement technology which involve the reaction of a sensing element placed in the flow stream. This idea envisions, for example, a heavy yoke containing a wire or rod which could be placed in the flow stream on the end of long shaft attached to a piece of heavy equipment such as a bulldozer.

Although this proposed method involves operations near the blowing well, presumably measurements would not take very much time. For offshore blowouts the method would be limited to control measures in which there is a barge or platform from which to operate a bulldozer.

10.2.4 <u>Indirect Measurements</u>

It is suggested that there are more or less precise correlations between the size and shape of a burning gas plume and its rate of flow. Other correlations are believed to exist between the flow rate and the sonic emissions at the well, i.e., the sound level in decibels and/or the frequency distribution of the sound. A third suggestion is a correlation between the flow rate and the air velocity and/or pressure distribution in the vicinity of a blowing well.

Unlike the method suggested in Sec. 10.2.3, these indirect methods do not involve the insertion of a device into the flow stream. However, although suitable measurement equipment (photography, sound meters, anemometers, pressure sensors) exist, considerable effort is anticipated in establishing the necessary correlations, assuming reasonably reliable ones do exist.

10.3 Gas - Condensate and Oil Well Blowouts

It is implicit in this report that the methods presented apply only to dry gas production, i.e., that in which no liquid hydrocarbon phase develops prior to entering the atmosphere. Neither does it apply to dry gas accompanied by water production. If the methods are used for gas—condensate blow—outs or gas and gas—condensate blowouts accompanied by water production, the calculated rates and vented volumes will be larger than actual. Of course, the methods do not apply to oil well blowouts.

It is suggested that these investigations be extended to include gas-condensate and oil well blowouts.

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